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The **NORTH CENTRAL
ASSOCIATION
QUARTERLY**

Critical Issues in Higher Education

Education for World Citizenship

World Security through Improved
Communication

Minority Problems in the Public Schools

The High Schools and World Citizenship

High School Guidance and Counseling

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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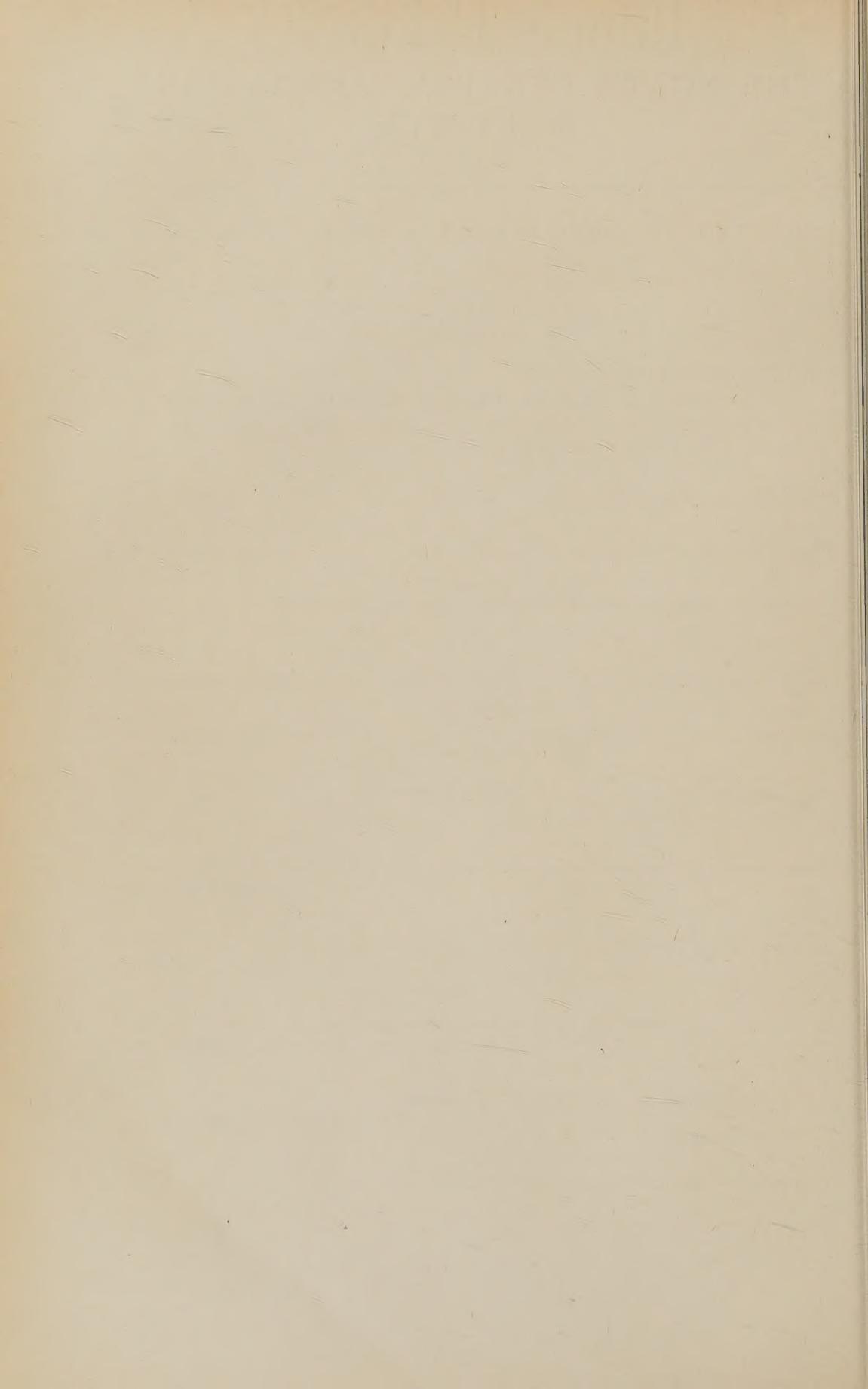
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Volume XXII

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ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

SECONDARY EDUCATION THE NEXT DECADE

TEACHERS and administrators in the secondary school are faced with a bewildering number of urgent and critical problems—of personnel, of instructional procedures and materials, of relationships with the community, of the part which the school should play in a world torn by domestic and international tensions and with the atomic bomb poised like Damocles' sword above it. Some of these problems are the outgrowth of the war or were aggravated by it. Others have accumulated with increasing intensity with the growth of secondary school population and the impact of economic and technological change over a period of several decades. Together they present a demand for vision, insight, and creative thinking which will tax to the full the resources of leadership in the secondary field.

The onset of World War II revealed with shocking clarity the extent to which education had failed to keep pace with technological change—not merely in contribution to scientific and technical skills but even more in social understanding and the utilization of human resources. The gap must be closed not merely that our civilization may advance but even if it is to sur-

vive. Let us examine briefly some of the problems which face the secondary school. Few of them are new, but the world of 1947 gives them a new urgency.

High school enrollment in the United States has increased more than 3,000 percent in fifty years. The secondary school is the "common school" of today. Few will assert that its offerings have been adapted to its changed clientele.

Only a small proportion of high school graduates will continue their education in higher institutions—one out of seven in one North Central state. In spite of vocational offerings and the multiplication of electives, the character of the high school for most pupils is still academic and college-preparatory.

High school teaching is still, by and large, textbook dominated. We have not begun to exploit the resources of libraries, visual and auditory aids, or community activities. The question and answer is still the usual teaching procedure.

A democracy depends for its survival on the enlightenment and sense of responsibility of its citizens. Any Gallup poll will quickly dispel the illusion that American citizens are informed on public issues. Even more disturbing are the evidences of widespread lack of a sense of personal civic responsibility. Obviously the high school does not carry the full responsibility for civic education, but there can be little question that it can play a more dynamic role than it has in the past.

A special problem in a democracy is the maintenance of mutual understanding and respect among the various groups which compose it. Mounting tensions threaten national unity—racial friction, religious intolerance, economic division, the tendency to isolate organized labor from the community. The school is in position

to make a distinctive contribution here, but that contribution, to be effective, must be planned. In a very real sense the high school course should be a study in human relations.

Newer developments in science, especially in biology and in nuclear physics, have greatly expanded man's control of his environment. That social understanding and social institutions have not kept pace with scientific progress is a truism. An awareness of critical social problems and some skill in their solution on the part of adolescent youth is an inescapable responsibility of the secondary school.

The problems which confront us on the international scene are similar in kind to those we face at home and demand for their solution much the same skills, attitudes, and understandings. Only as differences of culture and nationality are approached with mutual tolerance and understanding can the reality of "one world" be achieved.

These are some of the critical problems which challenge those responsible for secondary education in the next decade. (We are not likely to have longer than that!) The chief obstacle to their solution is complacency and the easy lapse into well-worn paths of comfortable tradition. Obviously they call for fundamental curriculum change, with a subject matter based squarely on the needs of young people and adults in the highly integrated world of today. Even more they demand a change from conventional teaching procedures—increased use of the problem-solving approach, recourse to a variety of reference and library materials of visual and auditory learning materials, of the community as an instructional resource, real adaptation to the wide range of individual differences through small group and individual activity. Perhaps most of all they call for a change in pupil-teacher relationship with teacher and pupils as workers together engaged in the zestful pursuit of worth-while goals which they have chosen cooperatively and which are to be achieved through activities which they have planned together. Undoubtedly prog-

ress has been made along these lines and significant experiments are under way in many schools. It is equally clear that progress is too slow, and that experimentation must be multiplied many times if the secondary school is to fulfill its obligations.

It is appropriate for the North Central Association to play a significant part in the adaptation of the secondary school to meet the needs of youth today. The role of leadership in blazing new trails is in keeping with the traditions of the Association. Its very origin was an experiment in new relationships between the secondary school and the college. The plan of accrediting schools rather than examining individual applicants for admission to higher institutions served as a release of the secondary school from external domination and a stimulus to experiment and innovation. It is not mere accident that the Middle West, free of the pressures of "College Boards" and Regents' Examinations, has served as a proving ground for much that was new in secondary education—in the development and control of extra-curricular activities, in curriculum reorganization, in teaching procedures, and in the growing concern with the problems of "general education."

The North Central Association has played a very important part in these developments and has exerted an influence felt far beyond the boundaries of its twenty states. Through the publications of the Association and its commissions, through its various studies and investigations, through such materials as the unit booklets, through its contribution to the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and, most recently, through the revision of its Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools the Association has contributed

much to progress in the secondary field. That vastly more remains to be done should be a challenge to the Association and, in particular, to the Commission on Secondary Schools.

EDGAR G. JOHNSON, Secretary
Commission on Secondary Schools

WHAT NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION
MEMBERSHIP MEANS TO A
HIGH SCHOOL¹

One hundred fifty-one Wisconsin high schools are affiliated with the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Of this number 126 are supported by public funds. The remainder are private and parochial institutions.² To determine what

¹ The editors of *The Bulletin*, publication of the Wisconsin Association of Secondary School Principals, recently requested this article from Harry E. Merritt, chairman of the Wisconsin State Committee. It is so pertinent and timely that it is hereby being brought to the attention of all the other readers of the QUARTERLY.

² This article is written for the principals of public secondary schools. For private and parochial high schools the story of the meaning of NCA membership would be more definitely favorable. There is a relationship between accreditation by the NCA and the entrance of private secondary graduates to higher educational institutions that is quite different from that of public high schools. For secondary schools like St. John's Military Academy at Delafield, Campion high school at Prairie du Chien and most other similar private and parochial institutions NCA membership is almost indispensable to their successful operation. Their students come from many states and their graduates enter colleges all over the United States and sometimes in foreign countries. If these schools did not profess the highest standards, if they remained unaffiliated with an organization that could contribute to their prestige, they would be in serious difficulty. Needless to say these institutions take NCA seriously. Their officials believe in the NCA, and they are punctilious in making their reports. They realize that their membership in the NCA is a valuable possession. They know that the NCA pays dividends in accord with what they invest in time, effort, and money in raising the standards of their schools. Their officials are no more conscientious and cooperative than most public secondary school administrators, but in these schools one never finds the indifference or even the antagonism toward the NCA that occasionally is expressed by a limited number of public school officials.—THE AUTHOR.

NCA membership means to each of these schools it might be highly desirable to question the principal, the teachers, the students, the alumnae, the controlling board, etc. This procedure is impossible on short notice. Hence, it is necessary for me, if I am going to express myself on the subject assigned to infer what NCA membership means. As a background, I have taught in and have been a principal of both NCA and non-NCA high schools and I have served as chairman of the Wisconsin State Committee for the NCA for nine years. I have had numerous conferences with the principals of both member and non-member schools on NCA matters. Each year quite a voluminous correspondence with member schools is necessary in order to get all reports sufficiently accurate and complete for the tabulation of data and for examination by the reviewing committees at the March Meeting of the Association in Chicago. This correspondence frequently is highly revealing of the meaning of NCA to individual principals and superintendents. Quite naturally I have gathered some definite impressions as to the meaning of membership in the NCA for many schools.

One thing frequently mentioned as having value in connection with NCA membership is the matter of college entrance. Many people apparently have the impression that graduates of NCA schools possess some advantage over the graduates of non-member schools. At one time, perhaps, this may have been true, but during my service on the Wisconsin State Committee I have been unable to discover more than faint traces of these advantages. All graduates of our public high schools, NCA members as well as non-members, are admitted to the University of Wisconsin, the state teachers colleges, Stout Institute and the private liberal

arts colleges of our state on the same basis. It is only the occasional Wisconsin public high school graduate who desires to enter a college or university quite remote from Wisconsin who is questioned about the standing of his high school with the regional accrediting association. To my knowledge, within the past eight years, not one of these graduates has been denied college entrance solely because his school was not a member of the NCA. It cannot be maintained that just belonging to the NCA makes much difference as far as entrance to college is concerned. The individual student's pattern of subjects, his grades, his rank in class, his record as a school citizen, his principal's recommendation, his personality and his aptitude to profit from the type of training in which he is interested are all of much greater importance.

The preceding paragraph deals largely with what NCA membership doesn't mean, and I was asked to write on what it does mean to member schools. One thing is true beyond dispute. NCA membership has no simple and uniform meaning. It varies from school to school, from principal to principal, from community to community and from one extreme to another. I could refer you to one principal of an excellent school who was obviously disturbed because his school in 1945-46 failed to get its usual "unqualifiedly recommended" rating. I am confident that this principal with some eloquence and considerable emphasis would inform you that the NCA is a barnacle on the ship of secondary education, something that might have been useful and constructive at one time but something that in this present day and age the state of Wisconsin would be better off without. Nevertheless, this principal has submitted a complete and accurate report on his

school for 1946-47. He has paid his annual dues to the Association, and the minor infraction of standards that resulted in a "qualified approval" last year has been eliminated. His school will be among those "unqualifiedly recommended" this year. I would not be at all surprised if when this principal gets official notice of the action taken by the Secondary School Commission that the result will be sufficiently newsworthy to warrant space in the local newspaper.

Another principal of another very good high school called at the office a few days ago concerning some situations that had developed in his school because of war conditions. In effect he said, "I have been the principal of NCA high schools for over twenty-five years, and I am all for it. This organization has never cramped my style in any way when it comes to operating a good school, and on several occasions which I can enumerate, it has been a decided help to me. I like to have 'Fully Accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools' on my high school stationery and in the newspaper announcements we use shortly before school opens in the fall. I don't know just what we would lose if we withdrew or were dropped from membership, but I do know that neither my board nor I want to find out."

The principal of one of our very good but one of our smallest member schools recently wrote me with respect to his school's continued affiliation with NCA. It seems that during the war he found it necessary to employ two local residents, married women without college degrees but with life certificates in their special fields. These women are doing excellent work even though they fail to meet Criterion 7(a). They have family obligations which make it impossible for them to attend summer

school or take extension work from the University or teachers colleges. He states his attitude as follows: "We want the best school we can have, and we are constantly improving many phases of our system, but we don't like the half-way idea of conditioned approval. It appears the right thing to do, that we drop out until we can meet requirements in full as outlined by the Association. I hope there will be no misunderstanding in the matter, we will endeavor to improve our school constantly, and finally request readmission."

Membership in good standing with the regional accrediting association does mean something not only in the twenty states in the NCA area but in each of the other five accrediting areas as well. We know that in Wisconsin not all the good high schools are members of the NCA. Likewise we know that not all NCA member schools are to be included in the list of those that can be described as excellent. However, it is true that, in general, the better high schools, the ones with the better-trained teachers, the ones where the teachers are more likely to be teaching in fields where they have had adequate academic or special college training, the ones with the better salary schedules, conditions of work and records of teacher tenure are affiliated with the NCA. It is not at all surprising that many principals, faculties, and communities take a certain justifiable pride in having their high schools associated with this somewhat superior group of institutions.

Joining the NCA as far as a school is concerned is comparable to joining a church as far as an individual is concerned. Both the NCA and the church have standards with which those who are affiliated profess to conform. The standards are desirable in both cases, and, in general, it does neither the

school nor the individual any harm and frequently much good to profess both a set of high standards and a desire to live up to them.

During the nine years I have served as chairman of the Wisconsin State Committee I have never urged any principal of a non-member school to consider the desirability of joining the NCA. As a matter of policy, I never intend to do so. I am confident that from 75 to 125 non-member schools either now meet practically all NCA standards or could do so with little trouble. Every year several principals of non-member schools approach me on the matter of NCA affiliation. In some cases I recommend that an application be submitted. In other cases, because of conditions in the school that fall too far short of being ideal, I have discouraged submitting an application until after the completion of a program of improvement that may take years to accomplish.

One of our good rural high schools which enrolls over four hundred students is applying for membership this year. Except for the fact that the former principal had no master's degree the school has been meeting most NCA standards for years. The principal of this school recently expressed himself as follows: "You know, Merritt, the first thing I had to do was to get full college transcripts for all my teachers. They are very revealing. I don't know why I never did it before, but this one thing is going to be of considerable value to me and to our school. We also are beginning our self-evaluation, using the materials developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. My entire faculty is developing a professional interest in the whole school and in their particular jobs that I would not have believed possible." This school has been and would continue to be a good

school whether or not the idea of joining the NCA had ever entered the mind of the principal. But I firmly believe that the careful and thorough self-evaluation followed by an evaluation by a visiting committee and the all-round professional stimulation which now accompanies affiliation with the NCA will make it a much better school than it would have been without these experiences. Not to be overlooked in this connection is the widespread professionalizing effect upon other schools that come to them somewhat indirectly through having their principals, superintendents, and heads of departments serve as members of an evaluation committee.

Again, let us revert to the church membership idea. We all know persons in whom church life and church influence have worked remarkable and beneficial transformations. We also know of church members where the church influence has made no discernible difference at all. If one were to write on "What Church Membership Means to an Individual" one would have to know the individual. The same thing is true of NCA membership. What it means depends upon the principal, the school, and his community. During my connection with the Association I have failed to discover a single case in which NCA has been an obstacle to school improvement, and more frequently than not, it has been a decidedly constructive influence.

HARRY E. MERRITT, Chairman
Wisconsin State Committee

SCHOOLS FOR AMERICAN DEPENDENTS
IN GERMANY APPROVED FOR
ACCREDITING BY THE
N.C.A.

At the meeting of the Executive Committee on June 28, 1947, the five American Dependents Schools in Ber-

lin, Frankfurt, Heidelberg, Erlangen, and Munich were approved for accrediting by the North Central Association on the recommendation of the Administrative Committee. Official request for this approval had been submitted to Secretary Rosenlof by the proper authorities. It was indicated that children of United States personnel in occupied Germany were in general concerned with attending colleges in the United States and wished to graduate from approved schools. It was felt that approval by the North Central Association would be accepted by other accrediting agencies.

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CRITICAL ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION¹

JOHN DALE RUSSELL

U. S. Office of Education

ONE who examines the literature in the field of education over a period of years may well conclude that higher education is always facing critical issues. At any one moment the issues faced always seem more critical and more difficult of solution than those of any previous period. When the issues are stated in abstract terms, however, they seem to be very similar year after year and period after period. The settings for the problems change, and the solutions that are found from time to time are different, but to a large extent the fundamental issues remain the same.

Within the time limits available on this program I intend to mention and discuss briefly six of the fundamental issues now confronting higher education. Stated in abstract terms, so that you may at once recognize their perennial character, the issues I propose to discuss are as follows: (1) How many students shall we educate beyond the high school? (2) What will they want to study? (3) How shall we select those who are to be admitted? (4) What types of institutions will best serve the need? (5) How can we provide the teaching staff? (6) How shall we pay for the education that is needed?

1. How Many Students Shall We Educate beyond the High School?

A question that is in the mind of almost everyone today is the probable future trends of enrolments in higher education. This problem is one that has been a source of concern to people in

the field of higher education for a long time, but this year it is placed in a setting entirely different from that of prewar times. Instead of asking, "How many can we induce to enter college?" the question rather becomes, "How can we possibly care for all those who now clamor for entrance?"

I need not dwell extensively on the situation for the current year which, as you know, has crowded most of the institutions of higher education far beyond their rated capacities. The U.S. Office of Education reported in a Statistical Circular, dated November 20, 1946 (SRS-21.3-116), that the total number of full-time and part-time college-level students attending in the second week of the autumn term or semester in 1946 was 2,078,095. This was more than double the number attending at the corresponding time of the preceding year, and 50 percent more than the peak enrolment of any previous year.

Within the exception of teachers colleges, almost every established institution this year has accepted a larger number of students than its normal capacity. Now the question arises, "Are the new enrolment levels merely a temporary condition and should we expect them to recede within two or three years to the former level, or should we plan permanently to care for the increased numbers of students whom we have been more or less forced to accommodate in 1946-47?"

To prophesy with respect to future enrolments is hazardous, and yet every administrator is forced to adopt some kind of a guiding principle regarding the probable continuation of

¹ Delivered before the Commission on Colleges and Universities in Chicago, March 26, 1947.

the demand for service at the present high level. My own personal prediction, assuming no interfering factors such as an outbreak of another war, or the introduction of a system of universal military training, or a severe and sharp economic depression, is that enrolments by 1951 will be approximately double those of 1939-40, or in the neighborhood of a total of 3,000,000 students pursuing courses beyond the high school level. For the autumn of 1947 I would predict an increase of 15 percent beyond the autumn 1946 level, provided the institutions of higher education are willing and able to accept that many students.

On previous occasions I have indicated rather fully the factors that lead to the prediction of increased enrolments. Time does not permit a full discussion of these factors on the present occasion, but stated briefly they are as follows: (1) the backlog of 3,500,000 veterans who have been issued certificates of eligibility for educational benefits under Public Law 346 and who had not entered upon their schooling by December, 1946; (2) the high rate of retention of veteran students in our colleges and universities; (3) the increase in the percentage of young people who graduate from high school; and (4) the general social attitude toward higher education, by which some college experience is increasingly looked upon as a part of the necessary and desirable education of young people.

It is true that there was a downward trend in the birth-rate during the 1930's, the period during which were born most of the non-veterans who will be our students for the next ten years. From this smaller potential group of college students, however, it seems entirely probable that social attitudes will produce a larger than normal number of college students. By

the middle 1950's the increased birth-rate of the war years will be producing a larger-than-ever crop of college students. This increased population potential will persist at least until the middle 1960's.

This analysis is perhaps too brief to be convincing, but in my judgment the colleges and universities of this country must plan on serving an increasing number of students during the next four years. Unless some unforeseen circumstance intervenes, I see no prospect of any significant reduction in enrolments for fifteen years beyond that. Certainly it will be better to be prepared to serve a few more students than actually enroll, rather than to be caught short of facilities again as has happened this year.

If we conclude that increased numbers of young people will want to attend college in the future, we must immediately ask the question, "Is it sound social policy to educate so many people?" Perhaps the members of this audience would immediately say that this is not a debatable question, but I assure you there are many citizens of this country who are asking it seriously. Is it not possible that we may educate more people at the college level than can be absorbed in occupations requiring college-level training? Will this not lay a foundation for grave social unrest and widespread personal disappointment and sense of frustration?

It should be pointed out, first of all, that such a question is applicable only to the field of occupational preparation. So far as sound general education is concerned, it seems impossible that in a modern democracy we would ever have too many people who are well informed about government, economics, history, literature, music, art, psychology, philosophy, and all the other elements of sound general or liberal education. The limits of the

provision of such instruction are determined more by what the society can afford than by any apparent ceiling on what it can absorb.

With respect to the needs for people who have had specialized or occupational preparation at the college level, the forecasts are more difficult. At present there seem to be shortages in almost every field. All of us in educational circles are familiar with the continuing shortages of teachers. Conversations with some highly placed officials in the Army and the Navy indicate that those agencies are greatly worried about the shortages of technicians, especially in such fields as electronics. They believe that these shortages are so serious as to be a grave threat to our national security.

Conditions in industry and technology change so fast in these times that they tend to outstrip by far the efforts of institutions to keep up with new demands for training. One can hardly yet foresee, for example, the extent to which scientific discoveries in the field of nuclear fission and atomic energy will affect the demands for people with college training, but the effect can scarcely be anything other than an enormously increased demand for advanced study and preparation.

In a very real sense the provision of training for increased numbers of people creates a demand for increased training. Intelligent persons with good basic preparation tend to create new jobs and new occupations by demonstrating that they are prepared to render services the value of which was never before adequately realized. A man trained in engineering may invent a new process which calls for the services of new kinds of technicians that were never before employed. As better preparation is offered in the field of medicine, and as more research is done on medical problems, the number of

medical practitioners that are needed to supply services, that then come to be *required* by the population, also increases at a rapid rate.

The recent war has brought vividly to the attention of American leaders the shortages that have existed with respect to workers with various types of technical and scientific education. It has been suggested that it would be wise during peacetime to follow the policy of "stock-piling" technical competence, as well as critical materials, that might be needed in the event of another war. In other words, the limits on the amounts of preparation that should be given are not determined entirely by the peacetime needs of the country, but in part at least by the unforeseeable potentialities of great national emergencies.

The foregoing considerations indicate that, whatever forecasts may be made on the basis of the present ability of the economic order to absorb professionally trained people, the results are likely to be too conservative. As the number of positions requiring extensive preparation increases, the needs for the services of people with that type of preparation seem to increase even more rapidly. The general conclusion may be drawn that, within the limits of any provision which is likely to be made for higher education in the United States in the near future, there is little or no probability of any significant overproduction. The best check on overproduction in specific types of occupations is through the choices made by the students themselves, who can readily be advised to stay out of lines of preparation that seem at the time to be overcrowded. Insofar as qualified students are willing to spend their time and energy in the preparation of various professions, society should be willing to provide them the opportunities for that preparation.

2. What Will They Want to Study?

The issue which I state as "What will they want to study?" might be phrased by others by others as "What should we have them study?" or "What shall we require them to study?" Regardless of the manner in which your philosophy of education causes you to phrase this question, there is the inescapable fact that the huge increase in numbers of students who are seeking higher education requires a re-thinking of the curriculum. In large numbers the students who crowd our halls of learning today are of a type that would not have attended college at all in earlier years. It certainly cannot be assumed that the curriculum which was considered satisfactory for the needs of the select group of young people who attended college three or four decades ago is suitable for the greatly increased numbers now attending. Some would say that the curriculum for at least a half-century has never been suited to needs of those who have attended college. In any event, our society has changed in character to a remarkable extent in that period, and is now making demands for certain types of preparation at the post-secondary level which were formerly not required at all. It is therefore necessary to examine critically the provisions that are set up for instruction to see that they are geared to the needs of the students and to the needs of society in which those students are, and are to be, members. What those changes should be is beyond the scope of this paper.

Present indications are that the increases in enrolments will not be distributed equally or proportionately over all levels of higher education or among all types of curriculums. Apparently the great increases in enrolment have been concentrated chiefly at the freshman level this year. There

is every indication that enrolments in the freshman and sophomore classes will continue to be large in the future. Upper division and graduate enrolments will certainly increase, especially when the present large numbers of freshmen have progressed to the more advanced levels. After that point is reached, however, I do not expect to see further increases in the upper division and graduate enrolments that will correspond to the continuing upward trend at the junior-college level.

With respect to types of curriculums that will be in demand, the trend is clearly toward those with an occupational objective. The best expression of this development, to which I might refer you, is contained in the recently published bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education, entitled "Vocational Education of College Grade."¹ The number of young people interested in liberal arts education of a non-occupational type will be just as large as, or perhaps even larger than in previous years, but the additional students represented in the greatly increased enrolments will be chiefly interested in curriculums that are organized to meet some occupational objective. These occupational curriculums may well have, indeed they must have, a strong element of liberal arts in them; thus the total demand for subjects ordinarily considered as arts and sciences will likely continue to increase.

The various fields of occupational preparation are not sharing equally in increased enrolments. Business and engineering are the curriculums that have experienced the largest increase in most institutions. In medicine the demand is large, but the policy of limiting enrolment has reduced the number of medical students below the levels main-

¹ U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1946, No. 18. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1946. Pp. xiii+126.

tained during the war period. Teacher preparation, most unfortunately, is attracting relatively few students, and the shortage of qualified teachers approaches crisis proportions in the American school system.

Newer types of institutions, that can readily set up curriculums for occupational purposes without too much of a wrench on their long cherished traditions, will doubtless show the greatest relative increase in enrolments in the future. The junior college and the technical institute, and other types of institutions that have the disposition to set up so-called terminal curriculums of less than degree length, will without doubt have the greatest opportunity of extending their services to an increasing number of young people who are wanting to continue their education beyond the high school.

3. How Shall We Select Those Who Are to Be Admitted to Higher Education?

In spite of the rapid growth of enrolments that has occurred in higher education, considerably less than 100 percent of the college-age population will continue their schooling beyond the secondary level. It becomes important therefore to examine the basis on which selection is made of those who are to have the privilege of higher education. In the past, the voluntary choice of the young person, or his parents, has been by far the most important method of determining who goes to college. For the boys and girls who decide, or whose parents decide, that they shall not continue beyond the high school (and this is the decision of a great majority of our population at present), there is no system of compulsory attendance at the college level. For those who wish to go on and who have money enough to finance college attendance, there has in the past been almost a certainty of being

admitted to some college, though perhaps not the college of one's first choice.

Colleges and universities themselves have sought to determine the selection of those who would be permitted to continue beyond the secondary school. For the most part, the stated entrance requirements have not been very effective in barring the attendance of any student who was really ambitious to attend college (or whose parents were ambitious for him to attend). When qualifications for admission were described in terms of subjects to be passed successfully in the secondary school, it was nearly always possible to arrange for a high-school student to take those courses that were required for college entrance. When the basis of selection included also some measure of academic ability, such as standing in the high-school class or a score on an intelligence test, it was nearly always possible to find some institution whose requirements were low enough to admit any young person who really insisted upon having further education.

Doubtless the setting of subject-matter patterns required for entrance or the use of measures of academic ability served to discourage many of the less able or less ambitious students who might otherwise have decided to continue their education beyond the secondary school. But such a decision, it must be noted, was for the most part left to the student and his parents. Thus while many individual institutions of higher education have been choosing among their applicants for admission on the basis of estimates of academic ability or by other means, these practices probably have not directly resulted, over the country as a whole, in the exclusion of any large numbers of young people whose parents were ambitious for them to have a college education.

Outside of the voluntary choice of the

young person or his parents, the most important factor in selecting those who have been permitted to continue their education beyond the high school has been economic ability. I need not remind you of the large number of studies which have shown that half or more of the secondary-school graduates with the highest levels of ability do not continue their education, and that limitation of financial resources is the chief reason for that condition.

We have been making little or no progress towards solving the problem of assisting our ablest young people to get a college education regardless of financial limitations. During the depression of the 1930's the National Youth Administration provided a small measure of relief so that limited numbers of qualified young people might attend college. That program, as you know, was discontinued several years ago and, curiously enough, educators as a group were among those who brought the greatest pressure for its abandonment. At present the benefits of Public Laws 16 and 346 are enabling a million or more veterans to continue their education. But the educational benefits are provided for veterans, not because the recipients are the especially capable people of their generation, those most able to profit by higher education, but rather because the country wishes to express its gratitude to them for the self-sacrificing services they rendered during the years of the war. That the veterans have proved on the whole to be excellent students was an unforeseen and unplanned part of the provisions of Public Laws 16 and 346.

The fact is that during the past fifty years we have been making it increasingly difficult for young people of limited financial resources to continue their education beyond high school. I

wonder how many of the members of this audience who are as old as I am would have been able to go to college if the tuition fees in the institutions they attended some three or four decades ago had been as high then as they are today. As you are undoubtedly aware, institutions all over the country have been continuing to raise their tuition fees. Although the trend toward increasing fees may be traced as far back as Civil War times, it has recently been accelerated. One can scarcely escape the conclusion that the willingness of the United States Government to pay up to \$500 a year toward the tuition of a qualified veteran student has led many institutions to feel that their tuition fees are too low. Undoubtedly the necessity of financing the program for the expanded enrolments has led to the consideration of student fees as the readiest and most reliable source for obtaining increased income.

Personally, I feel that we would be better off if higher education were as free to the student as elementary education or secondary education is in this country. I seem, however, to be almost alone in maintaining this point of view. There are many people who argue that the student will appreciate his education only if he (or his parents) have to pay (and pay plenty) for it. It is strange that we can dispense with this type of motivation at the level of the elementary and secondary school, but must seemingly require it at the college level. I know of no objective studies which have shown that motivation is better among students who pay high fees than among those who pay none at all. As a matter of fact, the universal reports of the excellent quality of academic achievement by veteran students this year may in part reflect the fact that Federal subsidy has to a con-

siderable extent relieved this group of the usual economic burdens that fall upon college student.

In the past, when there was competition for students, many institutions that depend heavily on fees have deliberately opposed the efforts of publicly controlled institutions to keep their fees low. Perhaps the present situation offers less inducement to such a policy, because competition for students is now mainly for quality rather than for number.

My own judgment is that if we could possibly finance higher education without any fees at all to be paid by students, we would be much better off than under the present system. In charging the student a stiff fee we inevitably give him the idea that the education he receives is something intended to be only of personal benefit to him, something that he can use to exploit his fellowmen. Would it not be better to teach him that higher education is something that society has freely given him, and that the only repayment he can make is through service to society? Note that we follow such a principle now in the preparation for certain callings of great importance to social welfare. We do not charge high tuition fees to students in theological schools or teachers colleges, nor to those in the U. S. Military Academy at West Point or in the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Why should we not take the point of view that every student, whether he prepares for preaching or teaching or home-making or business or engineering or any other career, owes a debt of service to his God, his country, and his fellowmen?

At present a grateful nation is giving the veterans who survived their military experience a chance at education because of what they did for the country in its hour of need. Would it not be

equally important to provide higher education for capable young people because of what they *can*, *should*, and *will do* for the society in which they live? In the latter case just as in the former, the burden of paying for the education should not fall on those who are the recipients of it.

In addition to the selection on the basis of economic ability, there are other bases sometimes used in selecting students that are also undesirable. The current pressures on institutional facilities have made it seem necessary in most publicly supported colleges and universities to give preference to applicants from the state in which the institution is located. While this may be necessary to meet a current emergency, the continuation of such a policy, especially at the more advanced levels of instruction, will result in increasing provincialism in our American institutions of higher education. Furthermore, it undoubtedly results in outright denial of opportunity, at least for certain types of education, to the students in almost every state, because very few states are able within their own borders to give all the types of curriculums needed by their young people.

If every state did its share in providing higher education, there would be an even balance in the flow of students from state to state. Perhaps the shutting off of opportunities for out-of-state students may force certain states, which have never carried the load that they should have done in higher education, to increase their own provisions. When that is done, the geographical restrictions on the admission of students should be eliminated promptly.

It is widely believed that many American institutions of higher education practice a form of discrimination

in admitting students on the basis of race and religion, I do not refer to the situation in states where Negroes and whites are legally required to be educated in separate institutions, but rather to so-called racial or religious "quotas," and to discrimination in admitting students on the basis of race or religion where there is no legal requirement of racial segregation. Evidence of such practices is usually difficult to obtain, and most institutional officials would deny that they refuse admission on the basis of race or religion to applicants who are otherwise qualified to enter college. That such a form of discrimination is entirely unjustifiable seems to me to be undebatable.

Whether institutions can be legally compelled to refrain from discrimination against applicants on the basis of race or religion is open to question. Attempts are being made in the state of New York to enact such legislation this year. It seems perfectly clear to me that for the sake of the best possible service of higher education in this country, we cannot afford to deny higher education to any well qualified young person on the basis of his race or religion. This is an issue which will not be entirely settled in 1947, but unless educators themselves take steps to make it clear that no discrimination exists, other agencies will inevitably step in and do the job in a way that we may not like.

4. What Types of Institutions Will Best Serve the Need?

In the past, higher education has been given chiefly in institutions of a residential type that were set up to care for students who did not live at home. "Going away to college" was the expected plan for the relatively few young people who continued their education beyond high school. Even so, large

numbers of students, probably for financial reasons, chose to attend institutions near their homes; in fact, the numbers who lived at home while attending college were probably greater than the number of students who lived away from home.

The current situation is forcing a change in the pattern of residence of college students. Because of the extreme pressure generated by the numbers of students seeking admission, most of the state controlled institutions have been forced to limit their enrollment to residents of their respective states. The limitation on plant facilities has made it impossible to provide residential quarters for the increasing numbers of students. It should be noted that the amount of plant space required to provide suitable housing for a student is much greater than the space needed for his academic instruction. As a consequence of this situation, the proportion of students who are attending college while living at home this year greatly increased. If there is to be a satisfactory distribution of opportunity to attend college it follows that there must be an increasing number of institutions located so as to serve effectively a local clientele. The development of the junior college will be of great service in solving this problem.

Institutions quickly reach the point beyond which they cannot expand their facilities to care for more students that must be housed away from home. Expansions are more easily cared for where no housing is to be provided for students. It is my judgment that encouragement should be given to the establishment of locally controlled junior colleges in every community where there is sufficient population to supply a student body of adequate size.

The general expansions that have

occurred in a number of individual colleges and universities this year have raised the question as to the desirable size of institutional units. In the past many privately controlled colleges have been accustomed to set a maximum number of students that they would accommodate. In my judgment the expansions that have been forced on institutions this autumn, which have led to the temporary abandonment of these established quotas in most institutions, have in many cases been fortunate. In too many colleges the maximum enrolment has been set in the past at a figure which is too small for the greatest efficiency of operation. The studies conducted a number of years ago for the North Central Association indicated that degree-granting institutions with fewer than 750 students could scarcely set up a program on an efficient basis; that is, small institutions usually could not get as much educational value per dollar of expenditure as would be obtained in a larger institution. Where current enrolments have carried institutions up to this point of efficient operation, it is my judgment that it would be wise to settle on the new figure, rather than to attempt to return at any time to the previous levels, particularly when these were below the point of efficient operation.

At the other end of the scale of enrolments, there is an equal need for attention to the question of desirable size. How large can an institution grow before it becomes unwieldy, bloated, and inefficient? Heretofore this has not been a problem in American higher education, but with reports from many universities indicating 20,000 to 25,000 students or more on a single campus, the question must certainly be raised.

It is well known in most forms of human enterprise that an organization can be too large to operate economi-

cally. It is time we were giving consideration to this question in the field of higher education. There must be a point beyond which enrolments on a single campus should not be allowed to increase, a point where it would be desirable to establish branches or new institutions, rather than to permit expansion to go on indefinitely. Undoubtedly there is a significantly large "portal to portal" expenditure of time and energy by students and faculty members in one of these large institutions.

In a recent state survey of higher education, we set a figure of 10,000 students for the maximum size to which the state university should be allowed to grow. We have no research to prove that this figure is the upper limit for efficient operation, but that there is some such limit I am certain. The development of an adequate system of junior colleges will be the best method of maintaining universities at a reasonable size. It might be very sound policy for a good many universities to limit sharply the number of freshmen and sophomores that they will receive, expecting students at this level to be served chiefly in local institutions. This will enable institutions of the degree-granting type to concentrate their resources at the upper division and graduate levels, where the demands for service seem certain to tax the maximum capacities of the institutions within the near future.

The great expansion in enrolment this year will probably change markedly the balance between publicly and privately controlled higher education in this country. In the 1930's American higher education was almost evenly balanced, so far as enrolments were concerned, between publicly and privately controlled institutions. The balance has been slowly shifting over a period of years, however, toward a

slight preponderance of enrolment in publicly controlled institutions, but the change has not been rapid. I fully agree with the opinion, which has often been expressed, that this nearly even balance has been a source of great strength to American higher education. It would be most unfortunate if either the publicly controlled or the privately controlled institutions should become the sole possessors of the field.

But the publicly controlled institutions of 1946-47 have undoubtedly increased their enrolments more rapidly than the privately controlled colleges and universities. Furthermore, in every report that I have seen where plans for expansion have been given, it seems that the privately controlled colleges and universities are not expecting to extend their facilities appreciably. It is highly probable that the expansions necessary to care for the major part of the increases in enrolment that seem certain to occur will be made in public institutions. In such a development we must watch carefully to avoid losing the values that we have always believed inherent in our plans for higher education under two differing forms of control.

5. How Can We Provide a Teaching Staff?

At another session of this meeting of the North Central Association there is scheduled a discussion of the problems of obtaining and maintaining a satisfactory teaching staff under the present trying conditions in higher education.¹ For that reason I shall refer only briefly to this problem in the present discussion. That the lack of an adequate supply of well qualified instructors is one of the major bottlenecks in higher edu-

cation is obvious to everyone, and the problem is, in my judgment, the most serious one in the whole field of higher education at the moment. It will be two or three years at best before the graduate schools begin to turn out anything like a sufficient supply of well prepared college instructors. Those who are getting their preparation now are doing their work under serious handicaps in many of the graduate schools, and the product of these schools may not be up to the prewar standards for several years.

As far as individual institutions are concerned, there are three conditions that will assist in securing and maintaining an adequate teaching staff: (a) early selection of personnel to fill all expected vacancies; (b) attractive salaries; (c) provision of good housing for new faculty members. Institutions that are not in a position to compete favorably on these three factors in maintaining or increasing their teaching staffs will almost inevitably have to be satisfied with candidates who do not meet the prewar standards.

To overcome the tendency toward deterioration in the quality of the instructional staff due to the appointment of teachers with substandard qualifications, there are three steps that might be suggested. The first is to institute a program of constructive supervision for the young and inexperienced teachers. This supervision might be effected through department heads and other institutional officials, who would be in a position to assist in overcoming the difficulties encountered by an inexperienced teacher. A second step would be to set up some arrangement for summer courses or workshops whereby inexperienced teachers could be brought together for some definite instruction on the teaching of their subjects. A third method would be a more general provision of

¹ Note: The reference is to "Recruitment and Retention of Teaching Personnel," by Willard E. Givens, of the N.E.A. This address will be published in a later issue of the QUARTERLY.

professional courses for the preparation of teachers at the college level, whereby graduate students could be encouraged to make some of the same sort of preparation that is now universally required of elementary and secondary school teachers. Although the graduate schools have been most reluctant to assist in the development of such types of preparation, those who are responsible for the employment of college teachers could do much to promote a better situation by insisting that they want beginning teachers who are equipped with some professional preparation,

As indicated earlier, I shall not discuss this topic more extensively because of its place on a subsequent program at this meeting of the North Central Association.

6. How Shall We Pay for the Education?

The pressure for expansion of facilities for higher education must be met in some way in this country. This year the colleges and universities have everywhere strained their facilities to the breaking point. A great many institutions report a total enrolment far beyond the capacity they reported as their maximum in the spring of 1946. At present it looks as if the demand for college attendance in the autumn of 1947 will be well beyond that of the current year. Can the already overstrained facilities of the colleges and universities be stretched some more? Just how are we going to meet the situation? March of 1947 is by no means too early for institutions to begin effective planning, both individually and as groups, with respect to what they will do to meet the situation next September or October.

Some of the elements that must be provided to meet the needs for the immediate future have already been

mentioned. The supply of teachers is, I repeat, the most serious bottleneck. Physical plant facilities cannot well be extended because of the difficulty of obtaining materials for construction and the inordinately high cost of building, so the institutions will in my judgment have to be prepared to serve the increased enrolments of the next year or two without any corresponding increase in physical plants. To do this there will have to be still further improvement in the utilization of plant facilities. An increase in the proportion of students attending institutions while living at home will also help greatly in relieving the strain on plant facilities.

The problem of obtaining sufficient income for the support of the enlarged operating program will be increasingly difficult. I have already indicated a negative reaction to the idea of obtaining this support by means of increasing the charges to students. We certainly must not continue to finance the expanding program by asking instructors to carry overloads without increases in pay even sufficient to correspond to the increased cost of living. The only remaining source of income that offers any promise of being able to meet the situation is government funds.

It is true that the federal government is now supporting higher education through the grants to veterans under Public Laws 16 and 346, to an extent far beyond anything in its past history. But the funds provided for veterans benefits do not and will not solve the problem of supporting the extended enrolments of higher education. In the first place, these benefits are provided only for veterans, and presumably some of these times, when we shall have educated all the veterans who are entitled to benefits, this source of income will cease. In the second place, the principle upon which pay-

ments to institutions for services to veterans have been established, namely that the federal government will pay only the stated amount of tuition fees (or in some cases the actual cost of instruction as rather narrowly defined), only means that each additional student imposes additional burdens on institutional finances.

The public in general apparently does not understand why the greatly increased enrolments in colleges and universities have not brought to these institutions an unparalleled financial prosperity. There is a curious failure to understand the fact that colleges and universities rarely collect in the form of student fees enough money to provide the full cost of instruction, but instead have in the past depended on income from other sources, such as endowment earnings, philanthropic gifts and government appropriations for a large share of the income needed to provide for the education of each student. Every additional student that has been accepted has therefore meant a need for additional funds from other than fees paid by or for the student.

Where the additional funds are to come from is one of the major problems of higher education in 1947. This year, as I have indicated above, they have come chiefly from contributions by staff members of institutions who have carried heavy overloads in their earnest desire to meet the demands of the young people who have entered college. This obviously cannot be continued. I am of the opinion that government appropriations are the only major source upon which the young people of the country, and the institutions of higher education that serve them, may depend for the increased income that is necessary. To some extent local governments and state governments will be in a position to carry a large share of the needed support. Whether the

federal government will be disposed to provide subsidies beyond what it has done already is impossible to forecast at this time.

That our country can well afford to provide a much greater extent of higher education than it has ever done in the past is scarcely debatable. We have sufficient capacity for production to enable us to pay for almost any service if we want it badly enough. It is only a matter of choice whether higher education is more important than some of the other services on which people spend their money. In the recently completed survey of higher education in Maryland, for example, it was pointed out that the money spent in bets on horseraces in a single year in that state would be sufficient to maintain an extended program of higher education at an adequate level for a great many years. We should encourage the public to look upon higher education, not as an expense, but as an investment that will yield increasingly rich dividends, both in economic productivity of our country and in the general happiness of the people.

Summary

In summary, we have noted six critical issues in higher education. These are by no means all that might be mentioned but they are among the most important that must be faced and solved in our time. (1) To the question "How many students shall we educate beyond the high school?" the answer is at least double the number reached in the prewar period; and to educate this increased number will be sound social policy. (2) To the question, "What will they want to study?" the answer is that they will be concentrated more than before at the junior-college or lower-division level, and they will be more interested in curriculums with

definite occupational objectives than students formerly have been. (3) To the question, "How shall we select those who are to be admitted?" the answer must be given that selection on a economic basis is unsound and must be abandoned as rapidly as possible; increasingly we must make provisions to allow every young person who is well motivated to find an acceptable place where he can profitably continue his education beyond the high school. (4) to the question, "What types of institutions will best serve this need?" the answer is that those which are located so as to serve students who live at home will be increasingly popular, and those whose traditions do not prevent them from developing new types of educational services will best serve the growing constituency of post-secondary-school population. (5) To the question, "How shall we provide an adequate teaching staff?" the only answer seems to be by setting up

arrangements to obtain the best possible service from a large number of teachers whose qualifications are sub-standard; this can be done by constructive supervision, by opportunities for in-service preparation, and by insistence on professional preparation as a part of graduate school programs. (6) To the question, "How can the program be financed?" the only answer seems to be by government appropriations.

We are undoubtedly in a period in which there will be a greatly increased investment in higher education in this country. This investment takes the form, not only of the additional funds required for current support and plant development, but also of the time and energy devoted to study by the increased number of our young people. To see that this investment is profitable is the immediate challenge that faces those who guide the destinies of our institutions of higher education.

EDUCATION FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP¹

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American Council on Education

UPON education rests a heavy responsibility for developing international understanding, for creating international confidence, and for promoting international cooperation. Understanding, confidence, and cooperation are three basic factors in education for world citizenship. There can be no understanding where ignorance prevails; there can be no confidence where rivalry and suspicion are continually highlighted; there can be no cooperation where barriers prevent the free flow of information among nations and where the curtain of isolation is drawn around the boundaries of nations.

The road to understanding can be opened only by abolishing ignorance. More than half the people of the world are illiterate; not because they lack the ability to profit by education, but because they lack the opportunity to gain even the rudiments of an education. The highest percentage of illiteracy exists in countries which because of their vast natural resources and their enormous populations are destined to play a role of growing importance in world affairs. Even now like a giant, awakening from a long sleep, they are beginning to realize their own potential strength. The ends to which this latent strength may be directed will depend in no small measure upon the self-determined destiny of the people who possess it. Given the advantages of the education to which all free men are entitled, the masses of population in these countries will not become slaves to technology or the

subjects of demagogues, but will assume an important and responsible role in giving stability, unity, and direction to a chaotic world.

As a result of the war, illiteracy is now increasing in large areas of Europe and the Far East which previously were educationally well advanced. In these areas millions of children and youth lack all educational opportunities because their school buildings were wrecked, their teachers were sent to concentration camps, their libraries and laboratories were looted, and the most elemental teaching materials were destroyed. During the half decade in which these children and youth have been without teachers, books, pictures, or music, they have learned how to steal, deceive, and kill. In order to save this oncoming generation from illiteracy and moral degradation, their educational facilities and personnel must be restored as speedily as possible. So important is the need for the immediate reconstruction and rehabilitation of the schools, colleges, and universities in war-torn areas that we must give this need first priority in any plans of education for world citizenship.

But merely to extend and restore educational opportunities abroad and at home as a basis for international understanding and world citizenship is not enough. The kind of education that is afforded is of paramount importance. We have had tragic examples of the wrong kind of education, the kind of education that exalts the state and submerges the individual, that advances the doctrine of racial superiority, that emphasizes science and

¹ The first of two papers on the general theme, "Contribution of Education to World Citizenship," read at Chicago, March 27, 1947.

technology to the exclusion of moral and spiritual values. We have seen the consequences of enlightenment without the control of high moral purpose. Regarding such education we may well agree with the unfrocked priest in *The Razor's Edge*, when he says, "Enlightenment is the curse of civilization." This kind of education disqualifies individuals for world citizenship. The world citizen must understand and appreciate the artistic scientific, social, and literary contributions of the peoples of the world. He must understand their characteristics and the manner of life. He must have a deep respect for human personality, without regard for nationality, race, or religion, and he must have a deep concern for the improvement of man's status. Measured by these criteria, education in the United States as well as in most other countries falls far short of making its major contribution to international understanding, which is a basic factor in world citizenship. While it is quite appropriate that youth should learn to respect their own national tradition, that they should understand the history and social institutions of their own country, and that they should acquire a sense of loyalty to their own government, they should at the same time gain an understanding and a respect for the best that men have said, written, and done in other lands. There is a grave danger that youth will be educated to believe that theirs is a great national culture, resting on its own foundation, instead of seeing their culture as a part of a great world temple of which all nations have laid the foundation, and of which all nations today are building the superstructure.

Education for world citizenship must include not only the intellectual experiences gained through lectures, books, libraries, and museums, but

also vital forms of experience through sympathetic participation in a wide variety of activities that will give them a sense of belonging to and being responsible for a world community.

Education for world citizenship is not the concern of one nation alone. It must be a common concern of all nations. There must be an understanding and agreement among the nations as to the ends to which education shall be directed, and broad outline as to the program and educational processes by which these ends may be achieved. The common interest of nations in education for world citizenship, of necessity, requires a coordinated approach to the problems involved. It requires the guiding hand and the facilitating services of an international organization. We have realized for a number of decades, as have educational leaders in other nations, the urgent need for marshalling the forces of education, science, and culture on a world-wide basis in the interests of international understanding. During the interim between the two great wars steps were taken to promote understanding and collaboration through the establishment of various international organizations; notably, the International Council of Scientific Unions, the International Union of Academies, the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, and the International Bureau of Education. While these various organizations achieved much, they did not achieve enough to prevent another war. They operated independently of one another; their objectives were specialized and diverse; and their activities touched the lives of relatively few people. They did not have a strong and direct impact upon the lives of the great body of the ordinary people in the cooperating nations. Now for the first time there exists a single unified international organization whose con-

trolling purpose it is to "build the defenses of peace in the minds of men." To build the defenses of peace in the minds of men must also be the ultimate objective of education for world citizenship. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, itself a dramatic example of the kind of cooperation that leads to international understanding, affords a challenging opportunity for world-wide cooperation in education for citizenship.

I shall select from the many projects included in the program of UNESCO only a few that have a direct bearing on the development of international understanding, the creation of international confidence, and the promotion of international cooperation.

There was general agreement among the delegates in the UNESCO Conference that the immediate reconstruction and rehabilitation of education in the countries affected by the war is of paramount importance. Unless the means of education are speedily restored, a new generation will arise that will have no understanding of the conditions that contributed to its misfortune, and that may as a consequence actually perpetuate these conditions. Accordingly, UNESCO is charged with the responsibility of enlisting the co-operation of the more favored nations in providing educational materials, equipment, and personnel essential to the immediate restoration of educational opportunities to the millions of youth who will otherwise remain illiterate. The participation by pupils in our schools and by students in our colleges in the restoration of education abroad affords a unique opportunity for studying sympathetically the life and culture of the nations in need, and for direct communication between youth at home and youth in other lands.

UNESCO, as an agency for the promotion of international understanding, must also take steps at once to reduce the present educational inequality that exists among the nations. Illiteracy among the large masses of people not directly affected by the war is a barrier to international understanding. The reduction of illiteracy, and the improvement of effective international communication, is the basic purpose underlying the development of a world-wide program in fundamental education. Here it is expected that UNESCO will aid nations at their expressed invitation by the appointment of panels of experts who will assist in the development of new types of education, especially for adults, in such areas as agriculture, health, and citizenship. Obviously, the aid to be given the nations whose educational progress has been retarded is not primarily a matter of pouring our wealth into their coffers, but rather of giving them the benefit of our experience in fundamental education. Of special importance in both the project for educational rehabilitation and the project for the reduction of illiteracy is the provision for the exchange of persons. It is urgent that scholarships and fellowships be provided to bring teachers, administrators, and technologists to the United States and the other more favorably situated countries, and that the means be made available for sending experts in education and technology to the unfortunate areas for the purpose of consultation and of conducting seminars and workshops. The presence of students and teachers from foreign countries on our campuses offers rich opportunities for mutual understanding—opportunities which we are prone to overlook. It is important that the provisions for the exchange of persons be extended in every way possible because there is

no substitute for the contacts between people of the various nations as a means of developing international understanding.

Another project of major importance in the program adopted by UNESCO provides for the collection and dissemination of information on the revision of textbooks and teaching materials. This will necessitate the assembling of the most commonly used textbooks and an analysis and appraisal of these books and other teaching materials, with a view to discovering in what respects they contribute to the attitudes and understandings that underlie continuing peace, and in what ways they may engender attitudes and understanding that are inimical to peace. It is clearly understood that UNESCO cannot and must not play the role of an educational policeman or a secret service agent. Its function is to be that of a consultant and guide to all the nations in the development of programs that contribute to mutual understanding, confidence, and cooperation.

It is generally agreed also that if the peoples of the world are to understand one another, there must be a free flow of information through the channels of mass communication—radio, newspapers, magazines, books, motion pictures, libraries, and museums. The barriers to the free exchange of information are many. They must be identified and removed as speedily as possible. Once these channels of communication are open, there must be a clear differentiation between propaganda for national interests and education for international understanding. This demands careful, cooperative planning for the preparation and distribution of films, books, magazines, and works of art of high quality. The criterion of excellence cannot be disregarded, and plans for the preparation

of appropriate materials cannot be postponed. The free flow of information through the mass media presupposes a responsibility for the kind of information that affects the thinking and attitudes of the people of the world. This responsibility must be shared by professional educators and laymen of all the cooperating nations.

When we consider the far-reaching influence of the press, libraries, museums, radio, and motion pictures in our own nation, we must realize what an important part for good or ill they might play in international understanding. It is proposed, for example, that there be established an international inter-library loan system, through which readers in any part of the world might have access to printed materials, works of art, and museum objects from other countries. By the use of new photographic and other processes of duplicating materials it may be possible to extend the world's resources of cultural information on a scale hitherto undreamed of. It is further proposed that there be established public libraries and museums where they do not now exist, that the creative arts be promoted, and that the conditions under which creative artists work be improved. If we add to these suggestions for the proposal for a worldwide system of radio broadcasting, we realize the potential but unused facilities that may be employed in education for world citizenship.

Especially important in any program of education for international understanding are the cooperative undertakings of scientists and scholars. A knowledge of the conditions that affect the lives and attitudes of people is a prerequisite to the improvement of conditions under which people live. An exploration of the resources and of the conditions affecting the habitability of sparsely-populated regions; a

study of how food production may be increased in areas whose dense population is perpetually on the verge of starvation; a study of how to improve diets and health among the underprivileged—these are only a few of the many areas in which the scientists of the nation, given a maximum degree of freedom and adequate resources, can make a vital contribution to the welfare of mankind.

Education for world citizenship must also be concerned with the conditions that lead to tensions, misunderstanding and suspicion among the peoples of the world. It is generally recognized that nationalism, the concentration of population, and technological developments are important factors contributing to these tensions. Thus far, however, there has been no systematic study carried on an international basis with the co-operation of economists, political scientists, anthropologists, geographers, and psychologists to identify accurately the causes of tensions and misunderstanding with a view to finding appropriate remedies. Such a study is included in the program of UNESCO. It will relate to the distinctive characters of national culture, to national ideals, to the identification of national problems, to factors contributing to excessive increases or decreases of population, the effect of migrations, the status of minority and dependent groups, and the effect of local customs and political restrictions. The agreement by nations to undertake a co-operative study of this type is in itself an important step toward international understanding. The information that may be derived from the study will constitute an important body of subject matter for the social sciences, and will provide a practical basis for remedying the causes of tensions among nations and among groups within nations.

Finally, I cite one further issue that is of the greatest importance in any plan of education for international understanding; namely, the systems of philosophical thinking that guide nations and peoples in their political, economic, social, and religious life. The citizen of the world must understand the systems of philosophical thought and the ideals that control the lives of people and of nations. It is too much to hope that in our present stage of intellectual and cultural development we may formulate a system of philosophical thinking that will be generally accepted throughout the world. It is not beyond the realm of reasonable expectation, however, that prevailing systems of philosophical and religious thought should be analyzed objectively with a view to discovering their common elements and the major points in which they differ. Too often our prejudices preclude any attempt to understand a political, economic, or social philosophy with which we are in disagreement on the basis of superficial knowledge. Such terms as "dialectic materialism," "idealism," "unitarianism," "Hinduism," "Judaism," "Roman Catholicism," "Protestant Christianity," "capitalism," or "communism," can note points of view with which we are in agreement or disagreement, more because we have been predisposed to them favorably or unfavorably by our social environments than because we understand the principles that they embody. It is now proposed that outstanding scholars from the cooperating nations study the widely divergent philosophical principles that find expression in systems of government, in systems of education, and in religious beliefs and practices with a view to discovering the common elements that are basic to mutual understanding and agreement among the nations. Free men in a free world must be accorded

the privilege of accepting the philosophical or religious point of view at which they arrive by rational processes. But free men in a free world must also understand one another's point of view if they are to live amicably in a world society, and the beginning of such understanding is a study of the type contemplated.

The Program of UNESCO summarizes the cooperative efforts of representatives of more than forty nations to determine how education can build the defenses of peace in the minds of men. To understand this program and its implications constitutes the starting point in the development of education

for world citizenship, though it should not be construed as setting the limits for such education within any of the cooperating nations. In our own schools and colleges we may well do far more in educating our youth for world citizenship than is proposed in the UNESCO program. But to do less than is proposed could only be construed as failure to fulfill our obligations as one of the cooperating nations. What we and other nations do, to support the program of UNESCO will be the measure of its success. What we do beyond the projects sponsored by UNESCO will reinforce what it undertakes.

CONTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION TO WORLD SECURITY THROUGH IMPROVED COMMUNICATION¹

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A CHIEF contribution that education can make and is making to world security is in the field of communication. The improvement of world communication is a chief requirement for the improvement of world security.

The chief instrument of education is, and always has been, communication. Without communication, indeed, children grow up almost as inarticulate and brutish as certain other mammals. This has been fairly well demonstrated by cases where association of children with other human beings has been very limited. The educational need for processes and tools of communication has been recognized for a long time. Probably for as long as men have carried on education at all, they have seen that attainment of a certain level of communication skills was required to move the individual effectively into the small group of family or village. At some later time in their development, they came to see that another and higher level of communication was required to move the small group effectively into the larger group of clan, tribe, state, or nation. Today, all over the world, they are beginning to search for those communication facts and skills which will help move states and nations into effective membership in a world society.

In this paper, I shall try to examine some educational phases of the search for improved means of communication, with particular regard to the objective of securing and maintaining world peace and security.

¹ This is the second of two papers on the general theme, "Contribution of Education to World Citizenship," read at Chicago, March 27, 1947.

The primitive savage saw that a child had to be directed, rewarded, admonished, punished, practiced in skills, and given patterns of socially approved behavior by words, gestures, demonstrations, symbols, signs, and other means of communication. The child could and often did learn all by himself, but what he learned alone was infinitesimal beside what he could learn with others and was less likely to be socially desirable.

From primitive societies to modern nationally systems, therefore, education has been increasingly tied to communication, skills, devices, and patterns. The relationship has been so close, indeed, that whole structures of education have been organized around particular instruments of communication, and communication vehicles have become again and again the actual objectives of elaborate systems of schooling.

The Chinese, for example, developed ideographic writing as an instrument for communication among groups with different spoken languages. It was and is a truly international means of communication in that it transmits ideas in any languages which the writer and readers happen to know. Thus the ideograph for *horse* means *cheval*, *caballo*, *pferd*, *sunka wakan*, or any other word for that animal which any people in the world wish to employ, without any regard whatsoever to differences among the languages. "Chinese" writing is not Chinese at all in the sense that it conveys the description of any Chinese speech. It is Chinese only because the Chinese have developed and used it.

The ideographic writing was extremely useful to a people like the Chinese who were trying to have peace and security an in association of peoples with widely varying languages. It was an indispensable instrument in particular to the leaders of this association of peoples. It was a great aid to those who had to direct the economy, administer the laws, and organize the defense of the Empire.

It was not because the Chinese were just peculiar, therefore, that they developed the system of long study of classic literature in the ideographic writing as a preparation for the imperial civil service. It was because, having discovered and developed a valuable communication instrument for holding varied groups of people together, they had a practical need for educating leaders in the use of that instrument.

Of course, as is well known, the Chinese stressed this particular communication instrument until the process became the goal of education, and even in the activity of reading and writing the ideographic symbols, form and technique assumed greater and greater importance over the dwindling values of content and purpose in communication until the whole system of Chinese education as viewed by foreign eyes was startling in its sterility, formalism, and uselessness. What had once been an educational instrument of great sweep and power for people seeking security in larger and larger groups had been reduced to a burlesque of learning by educators who, having forgotten their goals, redoubled their efforts in each succeeding generation.

The tendency of a particular communication instrument to be fastened upon schools and to become the objective rather than the tool of education has been demonstrated in many parts of the world other than China. Over

a period of twenty-five centuries, European education passed from the schools of Athens where reading was much less important than songs, recitations, dialogues, and athletic games to schools where the study of printed books was the all-dominant feature of instruction. Most of the bookish schools of the world today have hardly yet recognized the development of the radio, the phonograph, and the motion picture. With the more recent development of television and the recording of language by such methods as magnetizing a wire or the iron oxide surface of a plastic ribbon which can be played back without needle contact, or wear, the relative importance of printed books in education may well decline.

To move local and national groups into improved relationships with one another, these and other new, direct, and fast means of communication are available. The most effective education for world security will test and employ every possible instrument of communication without falling into the ancient pedagogical pit of believing that one method or means of conveying thought has of itself more educational force than some other device or instrument. These is nothing in a "comic" strip which makes it inherently a poorer instrument than a book for teaching history, geography, morals, manners, or international understanding. What book? What kind of comic strip? These are the important educational decisions, rather than convictions that books are educational and comic strips are not, that a library is always a university of knowledge and a movie theater is merely a place of entertainment, and that in general any one form of communication has higher educational values in itself than does any other form of communication.

The greatest world educational need in the field of communication is one

of which men have been aware for many centuries. It is the need, not for learning how to transmit ideas by new mechanical devices, but for education in the improvement of language itself as a means of world communication.

The notion of a "universal" language is very old. Both practical men of affairs and impractical visionaries have been attracted for centuries to the idea of developing a common tongue for purposes of improved understanding among cooperating groups. The idea, furthermore, contrary to popular opinion, has been successfully worked out in a number of instances. Of course, it has more often been unsuccessful. When it has been successful, relatively large numbers of people, acting under the spur of great historical movements, have made and spread the "universal" language. English, Arabic, Greek, Latin, Spanish, French, Russian, Turkish, Persian, and other tongues in certain times and places have become world languages in their respective "worlds." They have been taught and learned as second languages for purposes of commerce, travel, diplomacy, war, social ornamentation, and all the other uses to which people put a language which crosses local or national boundaries. Such languages have often risen from the status of second languages to first languages, supplanting the original native tongues among peoples who discovered the advantages of adopting them.

These facts are mentioned here because there seems today to be an unusual amount of pessimism abroad in the world concerning the possibility of developing a second language for all the world so that all men could talk to one another directly, as they can see one another today by motion pictures. To every suggestion for the development of a second language these pessimists cry, "Impractical! It can't be done! Visionary!" The peoples of

England once made such a language and then made it into a first language of such relative simplicity of grammar, wealth of vocabulary, strength, vitality, and flexibility that today only its almost incredible system of spelling keeps it from being the most popular choice of half the population of the world for a universal language.

On the other side of the picture, there is a tendency for all spoken languages to split into dialects and then into separate languages. In fairly recent times, for example, in spite of common literatures, Dutch has become Netherlands Dutch, Flemish, and Afrikaans; Norse has moved away Danish and is now dividing itself into Riksmaal and Landsmaal; Canadian and Parisian French have drawn apart; and American and European forms of English, Portuguese, and Spanish have become differentiated.

Everybody in the world has a need for command of a language or of languages which are international in use. Obviously if there could be one of these languages agreed upon for everybody in the world, the educational advantages for teaching world cooperation would be very great.

At the same time, people all over the world need mother tongues, as distinct and local in words and accents as any group, however small, may desire. That need is present with all of us. It is why some of the Norwegians have been developing Landsmaal; it is why you and I say *schedule* and *again* through all the weight of Oxford may be thrown in favor of *shedule* and *agayne*. We just want to talk a home talk, and in this respect we are like the speakers of Bantu, Basque, Breton, Estonian, Frisian, Galician, Lettish, Maltese, Manx, Romani, Ruthenian, Tagalog, Welsh, or Wend.

It seems clear, therefore, that everybody needs to learn and use two languages, one a "universal" language

for general communication, the other a home language for local communication.

There was a time in Europe when this situation was approached. Latin was the universal language. It was taught in all the schools. University students and professors, for example, could transfer from Salamanca to Bologna, Paris, Oxford, Uppsala, Heidelberg, or Prague with no linguistic difficulty. Church services and law suits were conducted in Latin everywhere. Scholars from the tiniest countries with the least known home languages published their works and communicated with their fellow scholars in other countries as easily as those whose vernaculars were French or Italian. Comenius could be a world figure in education though his native tongue was a minor language, because he could use Latin and everybody of schooling knew Latin. What would Comenius use today? He would have to decide to learn to write Russian, English, German, or French, and whatever language he might select he would leave out of his readers a large number of scholars.

We say that this world is smaller today than ever before. Actually, in many respects, it is today bigger and its parts are more isolated from one another than in the days of Comenius. From the standpoint of world security alone, the problem of teaching a second language is one of the most pressing problems of our time. The greatest obstacle in the way of selecting and teaching such a language is not a technical problem relating to the difficulties of any language. It is rather a problem of political jealousies, racial antagonisms, religious differences, and linguistic loyalties. Every person would like to have a world language if it could only be his native language.

It was for this reason that various languages have been made up spe-

cifically to meet special inter-group needs, like the *lingua franca* of the Crusades, the Chinook jargon of the northwest American coast, and the various modern "artificial" languages, so-called.

One of the greatest international services that could be performed by UNESCO would be to set up an institute of linguistics where, with the help of world associations of language scholars, the improvement and development of some second language for international use could be carried on with an impartiality and authority hardly possible to private or national organizations.

Such a solution of the world language problem will not be made easily, but I think it will be made. It will be helped by the process already under way whereby the world has developed its present four or five chief international languages. It is possible that this number will tend to become smaller in the next fifty years, and that by the end of this century two or three main languages will be taught as second languages throughout the world.

The new United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, can and, I believe, will perform services of the highest importance in this field of improving communication for world purposes. The organization is already planning educational conferences, international seminars and workshops, and exchanges of teachers and students on a relatively small scale. It is to be hoped that as UNESCO gains experience and skill in these activities, the scale will be greatly enlarged.

There are even some of us, mostly in smaller countries, I must admit, who hope that such activities of UNESCO will culminate in the establishment of an international university.

The United Nations, the World Health Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the Inter-

national Court of Justice, the International Labor Organization, UNESCO, and other international agencies, present and contemplated, will need the services of men and women who have received technical education on the highest level in association with one another so that misunderstandings and tensions caused by faulty communication will be reduced to a minimum. Many employees of national governments, as foreign service officers, many persons engaged in business with international aspects, and many teachers in various kinds of schools will also profit from receiving a part of their graduate training in an international institution.

Above all, and this is the main reason why the idea of such a university is more favored by representatives of smaller countries than by those of the great powers, an institution of this character would be as readily available to the Iranian, the Nicaraguan, the Saudi-Arabian, the Finn, or the Indonesian, as to the Englishman, the Frenchman, the Russian, or the American.

It is true that many of the world's great universities do give a high level of technical training for various international tasks, but the Sorbonne, Oxford, and Harvard are still French, English, and American institutions to which students from other countries can go only as *foreigners* in national preserves.

Universities and other higher educational and research agencies all over the world, it would seem reasonable to suppose, would hold institutional membership in the international university which might give them privileges of voting for certain members of the board of governors, which would allow them to send professors and advanced students to the university for study and research, and which would make

them eligible to receive professors and students on similar missions from the international university and from its other institutional members.

The improvement of communication on the level of higher learning among all universities, professors, and students in the world would be, it seems to me, the essential purpose behind the University of the United Nations.

The international university would not have to have its faculties and institutes in one city or even on one continent. I should suppose that its faculty of social sciences might well be in Geneva, its astronomical observatory in South Africa, its school of medicine in Minnesota, its marine biological laboratory in the south Pacific, and its meteorological stations in Greenland and Antarctica.

Among the various objections which can be raised against the establishment of such an institution, there are two which seem to me to be of prime importance.

The first of these is the objection of cost. Such a university would presumably require a budget which in time might equal that of the University of Chicago, for instance. One reply to this objection would be that, although this would be a large budget for a university, it would be a trifling amount compared with the annual military expenditure of even a single small country. In the present state of world affairs, most of us would understand why any country, large or small, would wish to spend considerable amounts of money on its defense. Such expenditure would have a possible value for its future security. The expenditure of a comparable sum on a university of world significance would also seem to have a possible value for future world security.

The second of these objections is that students and professors might

come from narrow national situations to the international university and there be exposed to ideas not current or even acceptable in their own countries. The reply that many citizens of a country like the United States would make to this objection is that we believe with such of our distinguished countrymen as Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, and Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes that the truest test of the worth of any idea is its ability to get itself accepted in the market place of free competition, in the arena of intellectual and reasonable combat with fairness to all and favors to none, and that our undying hostility is not directed against any product of thought and imagination as such, but against "every form of tyranny over the mind of man."

If the international university succeeded in becoming only in small part

such a free market place of ideas, such an arena for the fair testing of the products of human intellect, such a bulwark against tryanny over the mind of man, it would help move the practice of communication for world security to levels of which we do not now commonly dream.

"*If, if,*" you may say. "If it succeeds! But what if it fails to achieve all or even a small part of these great objectives? What then?"

Why, then, I should say, we will modify it or discard it and seek other effective means to attain these high purposes—means which we shall better know how to select and operate because of our earlier experience. We shall then at least be men who have dared greatly for great goals and not men who have humbly confessed we were whipped before we began to fight.

YOUTH LOOKS AT THE ATOM¹

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IN one hard-hitting sentence, Joy Elmer Morgan has epitomized the barrier between your child and the continued opportunity of a good life. "America," he says, "cannot maintain peace and prosperity in a world weighed down by hunger, fear, cancerous armaments, and military domination."

Oak Ridge, Tennessee, what it has been and what it is, underscores this statement. Oak Ridge has no hunger. In this it is unique. It does have cause for fear. And it is a very fountain-head of armaments that are literally cancerous.

Radioactive armaments give us pause. They should. But, grim physical imperative though it is, the atomic bomb itself is not the issue. The glare of Hiroshima only magnifies the dark silhouettes of barriers that man has not crossed in centuries of climbing. Will he cross them now? He can. They are not physical barriers. The will to live in peace is a complex moral lesson to be learned and to be practiced. Man must learn and practice it. How shall he learn? Who shall teach him fitness to survive?

I know at least fifty teachers in Oak Ridge who are rapidly giving their youth to this task. They work at it with enervating persistence. They have little or no leisure—little time with their families that is not subject to interruption. Twenty hours a week of educational effort is no uncommon stint; and they give it after their regu-

¹ This address was the first of three features under the topic, "Education for National and International Understanding," presented at Chicago, March 26, 1947.

lar work is done. They are engineers and scientists. Teaching is not their profession. They do not like it; they are not paid for it; but they see it as their job.

Could we share something of what these men feel as they watch a world in which force is still sovereign turning through the second year of a yet ungoverned atomic age, we professional teachers of the physical and social sciences might gain a heightened sense of how intensely vital have become our own jobs now. Last week a number of them met to consider temporary suspension of their own professions so that they can give at least one solid year to teaching Americans the need for peace. The following remarks exchanged at this meeting by a radiochemist and a professional teacher typify their present attitude.

CHEMIST: When I came to this project, there were two things in my life, science and my family. The people could run their own government, or George could run it for them. I was busy. I had no time for anything that interfered with science or my home. Times have changed.

TEACHER: I can imagine that becoming a self-appointed teacher was farthest from your thoughts when you headed here. Well, it's a man-sized sideline you've taken on, one that calls for a big investment. What do you think of your returns so far?

CHEMIST: Not much, considering the size of the job that's left to do. The most discouraging thing about this whole business is that it is too big really to get hold of. It's just like trying to grab an oversized jellyfish.

TEACHER: But it isn't a new problem you are bucking. People have been tackling it, or at least talking about it, for some two thousand years.

CHEMIST: Sure, I know, we've talked. And we've got to go on talking. But now we'd better mean it. We're talking about something called peace, a really tough customer, because we want

to unify conflicting interests on a world scale by a process of agreement. We don't want world unification of the sort that Hitler planned for Europe. I'm fed up with that kind of nonsense. Besides, anyone who thinks it might be done that way is writing off the cost. He forgets that this is his civilization too.

TEACHER: Well, those of us who are interested—

CHEMIST: Interest! Do you think I'm interested in the kind of thing we've been talking about this afternoon? Do you think I like doing things—writing and speaking, for instance—that I have no talent for? Interest, indeed! I have to grab myself by the scruff of the neck and ram myself right into the middle of this blasted jellyfish. Confound it, Phil, somebody has to do this job! Even if we have stopped killing people by the thousands. We are fighting a war of survival right now. I did a lot of things I didn't like to do from 1943 to 1945. I'm still doing a lot of things I don't like to do. So are you, and you know it.

TEACHER: I know how you feel all right. I haven't lived with it as you have; but I'm so weary of the business that the words *atom bomb* make me cringe. Still, there doesn't seem to be much in the cards for any of us if we don't get that jellyfish of yours beaten into some kind of shape that will stay put. We'd better keep on trying.

CHEMIST: We have no choice. I've got a kid to take care of. So do you. Most of us here have youngsters. A fellow can become complacent about himself, but I can't see, if he has the slightest understanding of what we have uncorked here, how any parent can sleep at night, if he has not spent at least part of the daytime waking up the neighbors.

Whatever be their shortcomings for the task that they have felt duty bound to assume, these men are deeply concerned. They are awake, and they are working at a task that is essentially a teacher's job.

Hitherto highly specialized, they are struggling to broaden their own understanding of society and of the people who make it up. As radiobiologist Dr. Paul Henshaw puts it, "Our education has made us expert builders of machines and splitters of atoms, but it has not trained us to evaluate our professional actions in terms of what they mean to man, for whom we work. We and our statesmen alike need a

broader social competence born of a common fund of knowledge, and of positive interest in humanity. We need re-education."

This keenly felt need has made these physical scientists students as well as teachers. In their teaching they adhere for the most part to the facts of atomic energy and to the obvious inferences which may be drawn from them. In essence, they say as former Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson has said so well in a recent issue of *Harper's*:

In this last great action of the Second World War we were given final proof that war is death. War in the twentieth century has grown steadily more barbarous, more destructive, more debased in all its aspects. Now, with the release of atomic energy, man's ability to destroy himself is very nearly complete. The bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki ended a war. They also made it wholly clear that we must never have another war. This is the lesson men and leaders everywhere must learn, and I believe that when they learn it they will find a way to lasting peace. There is no other choice.

As these self-appointed teachers of Oak Ridge see approaching the hour when other nations reasonably may be expected, as they say, to have rediscovered and developed our so-called secret processes by themselves, their sense of urgency drives them to say things which, however pertinent, are harsh and shocking. The reaction of the American people to what they and their fellows elsewhere have said in the past year leaves the efficacy of their bluntness open to question as a long-term educational method; but in notable instances, at least, it has produced results. One of these is the Oak Ridge Youth Council on the Atomic Crisis.

Late in 1945, one speech delivered by a radio chemist, Dr. Charles P. Coryell—more particularly, one remark from this speech—was the crystallizing agent for the present effort of the Oak Ridge students to dedicate atomic energy to peace. "Manifestly," said

Coryell, "effective international control is what we need. From all present indications, I doubt that we shall get it. As a scientist, I consider it probable that one out of every three of you presently will die because we have not learned to prevent the further use of nuclear energy as a weapon."

Carried back to an alert class in senior English, a digest of this talk became the focus for heated roundtable discussion. These youngsters had been thinking of the subject, as had the whole community, and they had had some little opportunity to talk about it in their classes in physics, chemistry, and the social studies. To Coryell's remark, "probably one out of every three of you will die," their response was, "That means not just us, but one out of every three Americans; and eventually the same would be true for almost everybody, everywhere. Not if we can help it, it won't. What can we do to stop it?"

"What can we do?" became the focus of discussion. We live in a democracy, they reasoned; and all of the people should be thinking about this. Maybe we can help to get the people started. We can tell them what we think. But first we've got to find out what we think ourselves.

As their interest grew, they carried it into other classes; and, the liberal attitude of the faculty and of the administration permitting, they invited to their continuing discussion interested students and teachers from other classes. By the end of a week, they felt that they were ready to speak their mind. They borrowed a stenographer from the school office and had her make a stenographic record of an hour's informal discussion with interested students from all over the school participating. Then they instructed an editorial committee, some six of their number who were most adept at

writing, to work with an advisor in drafting from the transcript of this discussion, an expression of their views. From this group issued an editorial open letter to modern youth, "Atomic Peace." The students considered this statement, approved it by vote, and, having debated what they should call the formal organization that by now they were hoping to establish, they instructed the committee to sign the editorial as representing the position of the Oak Ridge Youth Council on the Atomic Crisis.

The Oak Leaf, journalistic organ of the student body, accepted "Atomic Peace" for the front page of the Christmas issue. When it appeared, the YCAC mailed copies of this paper to metropolitan dailies over the country; and it was widely reprinted during the Christmas holidays of 1945. The Philadelphia *Record* carried it on page 1 of the Christmas issue. It was read on the air by two national commentators, and was reprinted in papers and magazines through the greater part of 1946. The Philadelphia *Record*, responding to this editorial, sent its science editor to Oak Ridge to talk with the students and to attend their classes, and it carried a week's series of stories describing their continuing activity. In March, the Intercultural Committee of the UNO Council of Philadelphia, together with *The Record* sponsored YCAC representatives in a series of discussions at eleven city schools. This series was climaxed by a community forum at Town Hall, in which students of the Philadelphia schools joined. In consequence of this series, thirteen schools in Philadelphia and one in New Jersey either formed similar councils or assigned existing organizations to carry on similar work.

From December of 1945, through the summer of 1946 to the present, the Council has been continuously active.

What it has become may be indicated most appropriately by letting the students speak for themselves. Following are digests, written by Leatha Fulkerson, vice-president of the Council and Dee Chambliss, president, of reports which they themselves have made to other associations of teachers. Of the Council and its work, Leatha Fulkerson, 16, a junior says:

We at Oak Ridge are normal people. Though the physical characteristics of our town are unique, we, living there, are quite normal. Our reaction to the announcement that our city has helped to create the atomic weapons used on Japan, was (as was that on most Americans) one of pride and elation. Few of us were aware of the implications of this new source of power.

When doubts as to our own security began to appear, however, we found nothing with which to dispel them. The technicians who knew about the atomic weapons did not allow us to remain long under the false sense of security that came from believing that we had an enduring monopoly of atomic energy or that an adequate military defense will be devised to prevent its unprecedented destructiveness. It became alarmingly apparent that another war would be fought with atomic weapons, and that such a war, by making the world unfit to live in, would put an end to the kind of life that we want to live. As we investigated the facts, we became aware that the only protection against the terribleness of atomic weapons is the abolition of war itself.

The Youth Council on the Atomic Crisis evolved from our desire to do something to help prevent another war. Seeking the role we could play in the attainment of peace, we developed this means of unified effort in that direction. A group of us who had been concerned with this problem and who had been discussing it together wrote a constitution to organize a program that we could carry out and to state its purposes. The main purpose was to cause people to consider the facts before them. The faith behind this was that if a person gave the issues real thought he would be motivated to action, as we had been.

Our constitution divided us into various committees, each committee having specific tasks. An example is the Editorial Committee, whose function it is to compose materials for radio discussions, publications, and forums. The members of this group co-operating with the staff of the school paper, *The Oak Leaf*, devoted a ten-page, special issue to the atomic question; and the Council distributed this issue to twelve thou-

sand high schools over the nation. The work of this committee has included fifteen radio broadcasts, and speaking engagements in thirteen states.

In addition to supplying the members with study materials, The Library and Research Committee compiled a bibliography entitled "The Atomic Crisis" and made this available for general circulation.

The Secretarial Committee has supervised the mailing of our materials to other schools and other organizations, kept our files, and carried on correspondence with students, teachers, and other adults in almost all of the forty-eight states.

Since the Council has not charged for most of the materials it has furnished, people away from Oak Ridge sometimes ask where we get our money. Much of it, the all-important Ways and Means Committee has earned through such projects as selling peanuts, cokes, and hot dogs at football and basketball games. Last year the faculty and the student intramural basketball champs helped the committee through the proceeds of a ball game which they played to raise money for us. Service clubs, parents, teachers, and other interested grown-ups in our town have helped. For example, the Junior Chamber of Commerce bought the railroad tickets for two of us to go to Atlantic City and Boston to talk with teachers who were meeting in those cities over the Thanksgiving holidays. Last year, Dr. Harrison Brown, a chemist at Oak Ridge, gave us part of what he earned by writing *Must Destruction Be Our Destiny?* And Norman Cousins, when he came to speak to the adults, talked with some of us, then had the Oak Ridge Forum Council give to us what it had planned to give to him. All of us have been pleased and some of us have been a little bit surprised by this proof that grown-ups do attach a great deal of importance to what high school students think.

Other committees have different functions; and each committee has its faculty sponsor. We have been helped by teachers of science, social science, mathematics, library science, Spanish, English, and commerce.

Such are the purpose and the make-up of our Youth Council on the Atomic Crisis. Whatever other values it may have had in the year that it has worked, it has been valuable to us for teaching us many of the things that we go to school to learn. But the educational value of the Council to its member is Dee's topic. He will tell about that.

A moment's digression will introduce Dee Chambliss, president of the YCAC, who speaks next. If for the better part

of three years, Dee, now a senior, had a serious purpose in his school work, it was not anchored in the courses which gave him academic credit. He worked well enough to become a letterman and a competent student journalist; but, in meeting academic requirements, he did not perform in anything like the fashion that his much better than average intelligence would easily have enabled him to do.

Last year, Dee was much disturbed by Major de Seversky's ill-considered account of the atomic bomb, which, printed as it was in the *Reader's Digest*, would misinform students in classrooms all over the country, to say nothing of the adult population. Dee obtained an interview with nuclear physicist Philip Morrison, who had just then given the McMahon Committee a scientific account of what the bombs, which he had helped to assemble, had actually done to the Japanese cities. As editor of *The Oak Leaf*, Chambliss, his head buzzing with what Morrison had told him, answered de Seversky in an editorial open letter. As editor, he included in it the special issue of the paper that he and his fellows were preparing for widespread distribution. Later, he was pardonably elated and strengthened in his purpose by a professor of physics at Tulane University who said in a letter:

I would like to compliment you on your excellent "Open Letter to Major de Seversky, appearing in the February 19 issue of *The Oak Leaf*. It is difficult to imagine a more dangerous or foolish doctrine than that the atomic bomb is "just another bomb." It is most heartening to find a group of high school students taking a keen interest in the implications of atomic energy. It would be more encouraging if a larger proportion of our population were aware of the necessity of guiding the use of atomic energy into useful channels.

Dee has become a competent extemporaneous spokesman for his group. Of the educational value of the work that

he has been doing he has told a group of teachers:

We believe that our organization is fully justified by the goal for which it works. We have found, however, that our Council also has an educational function, with by-products that are very valuable to its members.

Among these is the experience of being in actual contact with the Jeffersonian theory of democracy. As Leatha has explained, we place our faith in the belief that, given the facts, the common man will elect the wisest course of action. As we have seen thousands of boys and girls, and adults as well, fervently seeking the answers to the problems confronting our nation, we have renewed faith in the validity of Thomas Jefferson's beliefs.

In creating a system that would derive the best effects from our collective action, we became familiar with the complexities of organization. We achieved in our constitution an effective division of labor; and, in so doing, met many of the problems of government itself.

One of the functions of our group was (still is) to study. We have done so, driven by a desire to learn what is altogether new to many of us. We sought the best methods by which we could gain the knowledge we desired. We found that a great amount of reading was necessary and set up a committee for the purpose of investigating good sources. Thus, we became familiar with such magazines as the *New Republic* and the *Atlantic Monthly* as we had not been before. In many of us, our initial reading made us want to do more—much more. It gave us an idea of what is really worth reading and of how much there is to do of it.

We learned also really to listen to a speaker. Training and experience taught us to follow his thinking and to get the most from him by asking questions and talking with him. We heard Norman Cousins, Ely Culbertson, D. F. Fleming, Leland Stowe, and other such able thinkers and traded ideas with them. Moreover, in the process of rapid self-education, we came to see the discussion as a valuable tool. We would import to our discussions businessmen, ministers, scientists, and other citizens, and would share ideas and compare views. We had invaluable experience in expressing our own views before such a group and in gaining the most from others. In short, we learned the workings that make a democracy so powerful. We grew to appreciate the privilege of free speech and to become more aware of its merits.

In our study, we became acquainted with the various theories of government. We studied the make-up of our United States. We exercised our powers as citizens, or citizen's sons and daugh-

ters, as we followed through the legislative process with our own recommendations.

As we investigated the problems of international atomic energy control, we studied such peace plans as the League of Nations, and, of course, our UN and UNESCO. In so doing, we did, as otherwise we might have completely failed to do—we recognized the importance of history upon our lives and our futures. We learned from history that using force to defeat force has seldom gained the desired end; that a position gained by power has to be perpetuated by power, and that divergent backgrounds need not prevent an inseparable union. We can see that we can profit from these time-tested facts in our present-day planning.

Equalling in importance our discovery of the significance of history, is the revelation that there are no "domestic" problems that can be isolated from the whole. The race problem, economic difficulties, and other familiar social issues are parts of the one big problem which must be solved before the world can have the positive peace we seek. This has become increasingly evident through our study of what atomic energy means.

We are aware that the experience we have gained with the YCAC will profit us little if our goal is not realized. Education is of little use to one killed by an atomic blast. But we believe that what we have learned will better equip us to assist in perpetuating peace, if it is attained.

Dee's talk ends on a somber, questioning note. He himself is thoroughly an extrovert. He is not afraid. Realistically, he accepts the fact that his future planning must be *if'y*, until all of us have acted positively to make it otherwise. He does not hesitate to remind us that this is so.

To what extent may the educator safely use fear as a motivating force to unite and positively to activate the people in these times? Certainly, constructive action to bring immediate promise and hope for all the down-trodden of the world is demanded to meet the moral challenge of the power that we have now for good and evil. Can we compel people to do the best they know, by making them afraid not to do it? I think not. Fear is not enough. If we ignore the peril of these times, however, can we expect action? I think not. No compulsion, no action.

But too great a stressing of the frightful in the present prospect may yield mental paralysis and apathy, or hysteria and stampede which alike are fatal. Where do we strike the balance? All who educate, and all others whose professions give them responsibility for democratic leadership are now, indeed, as someone has said, "walking the shaky tightrope of human fallibility." In any case, all of us are walking it. We cannot evade the fact by walking in our sleep.

The YCAC has assumed responsibility for helping to arouse public interest in what is conceded to be the gravest question in human history. The members and their advisers have wrestled with this enigma of fear and hope, and with its effect upon the people who must resolve it. Indication of this struggle is the following unpublished editorial, which was drafted by the Editorial Committee, debated by the Council, and approved as a New Year's statement:

The old-year world has walked in a darkness of fear and greed and hatred that would not let it see beyond its age-old saying: "Good fences make good neighbors." Walking so has brought it close to death. In the light of a new year, it can find a way that leads to life. This is our hope.

Man, to whom Almighty God has given the power to know what is right and what is wrong, surely can see that the earth is no longer the boundless place it was in the days before science made it small. Surely he will see that all the different peoples of the world, before we, the younger ones, have seen many additional new years, must come together and live as one people, as citizens of the world; not as races, parties, or clashing nationalities. This is our faith. A better world will come.

Certainly, there is much that challenges this faith of ours. We see that man knows how to make the earth provide each of its inhabitants a sufficient life; yet millions starve. He has developed his wealth efficiently only when war has forced him to do so. He has built best only to destroy. And now we hear appeals for peace in many voices; yet these same tongues may warn us to prepare for war. We see that each nation possesses an army for the singular purpose of

defense, and that, as these defensive armies grow, fear of attack grows with them. In the councils of nations, we hear words of hate.

Always such conditions have preceded war. Now they point toward atomic war, or worse. Unthinkable as such war is, yet we must think of it. We must think of it to learn our need for patience—patience that will strengthen the will of our statesmen and send them back to try again, and yet again. We must think of it to know the cost of failure, ours or theirs.

In such war, inconceivable devastation will fall upon the people. Industrial might and wealth will vanish under atomic warheads. Those who escape the first attacks and who take refuge from the atomic fire, can still be reached by equally scientific, equally frightful, man-made pestilence. Famine will surely follow any large-scale use of the atomic bomb. But if man wishes to use famine as a separate weapon, he can release crop-destroying agencies to produce it. These realities of any future war will not happen to a sane world.

A nation or its people, if they are ruled by fear, cannot be sane. We are resolved, therefore, to be guided by the best we have to hope for, not by the worst we have to fear. The United States has proved that peoples from many lands can live as one people united under one government. Peoples of many nations can live as one people united under one government. Peoples of many nations can live as one world united under law, and can prosper even more richly than we have prospered.

True, a war-free world of united peoples is an idealistic vision. It is also a practical necessity, which can be accomplished by practical means. We are a practical people who are accustomed to doing the hitherto impossible when we work together with a purpose. What greater purpose could a people have than this? When we can give each year to good uses the effort and materials that war has always taken, we can have whatever we may need. We can stop the wasting of our woods, mines, and fields and make them give plenty for us all. We can have what we need: food, clothing, shelter, medical care, education, leisure, travel, and universal friendship that is free of fear.

This is the promise of the atomic age. This man can have. Why need he be afraid? Here is good work for him to do. Let him resolve to do it.

As Harry Emerson Fosdick said in his sermons of the war years, "This is a great time to be alive." The youngsters of the YCAC are discovering that there has been and is no time like the present. They are discovering, too, that to meet the positive challenge of today,

positively is hard work. Nothing has helped more to orient their thinking toward the positive solution of today's problems than have invitations to speak with adults of their own community. Both they and their advisers, I am almost certain, invested as much effort in preparing a community forum for the adults of Oak Ridge over the period of a month, as they have given to whole courses in the social studies. In February, under the sponsorship of the Junior Chamber of Commerce, they gave one of the adult forums in the community series for this year. Believe that they took their subject seriously; then realize what an undertaking it was: "The Place of Democracy in the Foundation of World Peace." UNO, UNESCO, World Government, An International Bill of the Rights of Man, American history, the realities of American economy, and the regional distribution of wealth, our treatment of minorities—all were grist for their mill. They were learning with a purpose; an immediate opportunity to share—to teach. Not long since, a professional educator in an American school addressed a meeting of his fellows and said, "Educators can not take sides on public issues. Which of you, for example, would dare to take a stand on the race question?" Speaking to the adult community of Oak Ridge, a representative of the Youth Council presented this idea: "You can make a definite contribution to the problem of establishing democracy solidly in the world, by helping fully to extend the rights of man to the colored people of Tennessee. We are agreed that world brotherhood is what we need. The world for each one of us begins under his feet. Let us be brothers." The child spoke what she deeply believed. The people of Oak Ridge in Tennessee received it well.

Educators in other cities see in modifications of the council idea oppor-

tunity for heightening democratic participation and responsibility among students and adults. Grace Nunn, principal of the Harding Elementary School in that city, who helped to plan their visit to Erie where they gave a discussion series in cooperation with student speakers of the various high schools writes:

The subject, with the personal touches that the Oak Ridge youngsters were able to bring to us, was most stimulating; I also think that the impact of personalities on personalities and points of view from other parts of the country had a very helpful effect. It should be possible for our own school systems to interchange speakers and engage in interscholastic activities which are scholastic rather than the usual athletic, and competitive. It is something which does not seem to happen. The emphasis given by the Oak Ridge group provided the greatest stimulus for that type of activity. I hope that we shall be able to follow it up with further programs of a similar type.

Dr. M. David Hoffman of the Simon Gratz High School in Philadelphia followed the Oak Ridge visit with a six weeks' project in his class in junior English. He reported this last fall to the convention of the National Council of the Teachers of English. In a letter, he says:

The Oak Ridge group impressed teachers and students alike by their earnestness, sincerity, and knowledge of the subject. The audiences felt that the speakers had a sense of social responsibility growing out of their proximity to the Oak Ridge project and the realization of the catastrophic effect of the atom bomb. The uniqueness of a visit of youth with such a message made a deep impression and gave impetus to local group interest and action along similar lines. The Oak Ridge students demonstrated the possibilities of a synthesis of social studies, English, and science in the senior high school, directed toward a vital social objective. Their emphasis on the importance of ethical values in civilization was given most effectively. For many students the whole subject was one on which they had not thought seriously before. The Oak Ridge presentation was more direct and personal than laboratory demonstrations, readings, or lectures would be.

On the place of the subject in the curriculum, Dr. Hoffman says:

As atomic energy is the No. 1 problem of social importance in the world today and is likely to be so for an indefinite time to come, there is no question of its place in the field of social studies. As the peacetime uses of atomic energy become practical, more and more attention will be given to it in our science teaching. I have been successful in having put into our new course of study in literature for senior high school in Philadelphia, such books as *One World or None*, *Hiroshima*, *The Bomb that Fell on America*, and *Modern Man Is Obsolete*. It is quite evident that English teachers recognize that the subject belongs in the areas of "speaking, reading, writing, and listening," and that atomic energy is "communication" with a capital "C." I think that the present atomic energy situation provides the clearest evidence of need for education on social controls, law, faith, spiritual values, and international understanding—and on the dangers, as well as the advantages of scientific achievement that goes on independent of our cultural, political, or economic readiness for same.

With these opinions, the members of the YCAC and their advisers are in accord.

The youngsters of the council have seen the fact of their living in Oak Ridge as an opportunity for good. They have accepted it as a commensurate responsibility. Always in their journeys they have said, in substance:

In coming to talk with you, we do not wish to tell you what to think or what to do. We have no formula to offer. We have been thinking, yes. We have ideas; but if yours are better, we want to use them. Living in Oak Ridge makes us no different from you. We are ordinary Americans—all of us. Of this, however, we are deeply convinced: Our new ability to release nuclear power means that war is no longer a simpler instrument for solving differences than are applied unselfishness and common sense. It means that all of the people must learn to work together in the world as brothers. It means that all of the people must make firm the foundations that they now have and build upon them a government that will give them equal justice under world law. Most immediately, it means that all of the people must think deeply about the scientific facts which have ended the era that they have known. Making the new beginning well, demands expenditure of money, time and work. For these, however, we shall be repaid manyfold in the better world that we shall have if we successfully expend them. We want to share in causing all of the people to think—and to work—unselfishly, vigorously, and unafraid. We hope that you will help us do it.

MINORITY PROBLEMS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS¹

THEODORE B. H. BRAMELD

University of Minnesota

IN listening to the paper that has just been presented, and in anticipating my own presentation, I kept thinking of a cartoon I saw recently in that eminent magazine, *The New Yorker*, which had a point to it that the cartoonist evidently didn't intend. Some of you will remember it. Three people are climbing a very steep mountain side. A woman mountain climber is at the top, and beneath her are two men. The three are fastened by ropes, and the woman at the top of the three is slipping and is about to fall. The mountain climber just below her says to his associate, "There she goes!" And the man at the bottom says, "What do you mean, there SHE goes?"

I think that had a moral, because when we think of the kind of world we are living in now, and when we think of the kind of society which we are living in here in the United States, it is obvious that if one country goes, we all go; and if we fail to solve such a fundamental problem as that involving minority groups, particularly the Negro and the Jew, the two most fundamental minority problems, we can be pretty sure that in failing to solve it we are weakening the total structure of American life so completely that eventually the whole country will collapse.

I know that is a strong statement, but I stand by it. Democracy is only as strong as its weakest link, and unless and until we solve this cruel,

tragic problem of discrimination, segregation, prejudice against our fellow citizens, we may not safely say that our own democracy is safe.

The title of the talk assigned to me emphasizes many problems. Heaven knows it is unnecessary in a group like this to point out that this is a problem, indeed that it is a series of problems. With regard, for example, to prejudice, it has been pretty well shown that we of this profession are just about as prejudiced as the rank and file of Americans. In this room there is prejudice, because we are relatively cross-sectional, probably, of American educators, and in any group of educators—teachers, administrators, college professors—there are certain to be manifestations of prejudice—prejudice which often is not even recognized clearly by its possessor.

I need not strongly stress the tremendous amount of segregation that still exists in the community and in the school with regard to minorities. One does not need to go, for example, to the Deep South to find schools where Negro children are just as completely segregated as they are in the North. One can find such schools pretty close to this place we are sitting in right now, and you know that, and I know it.

Nor need I stress more explicitly the widespread discriminations that follow from prejudice and from segregation, discriminations which again may be found in insidious fashion in the schools themselves; for example, in failures to provide children of certain minorities completely equal rights and opportunities in school activities, failures to

¹ This address was the second of three features under the topic, "Education for National and International Understanding," presented at Chicago, March 26, 1947. This printed account is based upon the stenotypist's notes of what Mr. Brameld said.

provide teachers who happen to have pigmented skin, or who happen to belong to a certain religious faith, an opportunity to teach in certain types of schools.

You know and I know that there are many communities in the West where school boards wouldn't think of hiring a teacher who belonged to the Jewish faith, much less to the Negro race. Indeed, we ought to remember that there are many school boards who would be hesitant to hire a Catholic teacher if they happened to be strongly entrenched representatives of a certain Protestant faith.

Prejudice, discrimination, segregation operate in insidious and sometimes quite unconscious ways. I am sure you will agree with me that if we are to tackle this problem we have got to be honest with ourselves and recognize that however well-meaning we are as educators, in behalf of the great traditional value of brotherhood and equality the fact still remains that the schools of America have not solved the problem. Indeed, they haven't even cracked the problem, and unless we are willing to face that unpleasant truth there is no point in talking about it.

Perhaps I ought to sit down; perhaps you would like to have me sit down. But I am not going to, because what I would like to do in the remaining time I have is to turn from this negative kind of emphasis upon problems and failures, to the positive, constructive side of the ledger.

Your chairman mentioned that I recently conducted a nationwide study of the problem of minority groups. From coast to coast I visited carefully selected school systems, and in those school systems I asked this question: "What are you doing to deal with this problem?" And then I went out into the communities, and off the record I

asked labor leaders, church leaders, business leaders, "What do you think of the way the schools are dealing with the problem?" And out of that compilation of a great deal of evidence I got some kind of a notion of what the constructive as well as destructive aspects of the present situation are.

Therefore, I should like now to select from this study some examples of things that are happening of a constructive nature. Please bear in mind, however, that in emphasizing the constructive I am not presenting a fair picture of the situation. The situation as a whole, in my opinion, is darker than it is brighter, so far. But you will want to have suggestions of what is being done and what might be done, because I am sure that the ladies and gentlemen in this room are all eager to go back to their own schools and tackle the problem, at least at some specific point, however difficult the problem may be.

Let me select first a few examples of things that are happening of a constructive nature in the area of teacher-pupil administrative relations. One of the most interesting achievements is in the field of administrative policy. A few schools are saying, "We can no longer leave this problem simply to inarticulate good will." If we really mean what we say by equality and brotherhood, let's put it down on paper so that we as school administrators will no longer leave in the minds of anyone any doubt whatever as to our position.

I want to read to you an example of such a statement. I think it is very remarkable. A very large city not far from here has this statement of policy, and I have chosen this morning not to mention any particular schools, in order to give you something of a constructive cross-section without reference to a locality:

The Board of Education of the City of ——

affirms the following statement of policy to govern contacts of the public schools with all persons whom they serve or employ:

Broad Purpose: In common with other major agencies in American democracy, the school has responsibility for treating all people fairly regardless of race, creed, national origin, or economic status. Further, because its task is educational, the school has a special responsibility in intercultural, and particularly interracial, relations. Its program of instruction and school activities should be so designed as to lead pupils of each group to understand and appreciate the people of their own and all other groups.

Persons Served:

1. Children, youth and adults are to be served without regard to race, creed, national origin or economic status.

2. Buildings, equipment and supplies are to be provided so as to equalize educational opportunities for all clientele.

3. Both the teaching staff and the non-teaching staff are to be so distributed as to equalize educational opportunities in all schools.

4. When transfers are permitted to schools out of the districts in which pupils reside, such transfers are to be issued without regard to race, creed, national origin or economic status.

Curriculum: The curriculum is planned to make special provision for promoting understanding and good will between groups that differ in race, creed, national origin or economic status. This provision is to be made by materials and experiences that are woven into the regular curriculum.

Employees:

1. Race, creed or national origin are not to be considered in the hiring or promotion of employees.

2. In the selection of all employees, particularly teachers, an intellectual understanding of minority groups and a readiness to work with all groups are considered essential.

3. The training of teachers at _____ University is to include in the required curriculum adequate training for the development of sound intercultural concepts and teaching technics appropriate to this field.

That statement of policy is in pretty general terms but it is down in writing, and it is unequivocal, and from here on school boards—the administrators—are obligated to defend any action they may take with regard to hiring and firing, on the issue that there shall be no regard whatever in such practices, in the treatment of children, for race,

creed, national origin or economic status.

Another example of concrete achievement in the administrative teacher-pupil area in the field of teacher organizations: Some teacher organizations, I regret to say still a rather small number of them, have begun to recognize that their job is not simply the job of struggling for salaries and tenures, and so on, although heaven knows that is important, but that they also have a wider responsibility which includes regard for the problem of intercultural relations.

Consequently, a few of these organizations have set up special committees and have proposed particular activities. Here is just one example: In the same city, by the way, which has the policy I have quoted, teachers of this particular organization decided that they would like to try to help other teachers in other parts of the city who were having particular problems regarding minority groups. So they volunteered to be transferred for a period of two years to schools where there are large numbers of Negro children, though they usually are the poorest schools in terms of physical equipment. Their idea was to help teachers develop more democratic attitudes in those schools. Here is an example of a teacher organization taking the initiative and making the proposal themselves.

Likewise there has been a great deal of effort in certain communities, in the last two or three years particularly, to give teachers more pre-service and in-service training in this field. A good many teachers' colleges, and I guess I am exaggerating when I say "a good many," are beginning to offer courses in intercultural education as a regular part of the teacher training program. Summer session workshops in intercultural education have sprung up all

over the United States in the last four or five years, particularly under the direction of two organizations, the National Conference of Christians and Jews, and the Bureau for Intercultural Education.

If you ladies and gentlemen are interested in trying to develop a corps of teachers who are particularly trained to carry the ball on this problem, why don't you consider sending them to some workshop next summer? If you would like to know where to get more information, you might like to take down the address of the Bureau for Intercultural Education, which is the oldest and largest service organization in schools in the field of interracial-intercultural relations: Bureau of Intercultural Education, 1697 Broadway, New York City. A penny postal card will put you on its mailing list.

There likewise has developed in the administrative area an increasing opposition to transfers of children on racial or religious grounds. That is the policy which is now increasingly and consciously adopted.

In the area of student relationships may I say that there have been some conscious efforts in the last few years to develop more mixed student bodies as well as more mixed faculties. The problem of making certain that children from all racial and religious backgrounds will have a chance to study and work together in the schools is a problem, of course, that cannot be solved merely by the schools.

Some of you in this room live in communities where Negroes, for example, are so concentrated in certain areas that it is natural for schools in those areas to become almost completely, or perhaps completely, of that particular racial status. That means, then, that if you believe that segregated schools are undesirable in American democracy, the problem can't be

solved until the school becomes sensitive to the fact that it is a social problem, an economic problem. That, in turn, means of course that the school has to help in every way it can to acquaint both adults, and children with the reasons why, for example, Negroes live in certain concentrated sections of certain cities, or why Jewish people do.

In my own city of Minneapolis Negroes live in what might virtually be called a ghetto. That is true of practically all cities in the United States where there are numbers of Negroes. Jewish people do also. The reason, of course, is that real estate organizations and frequently property owners simply will not permit Negroes or Jewish people and certain other minorities to live where they wish.

Is that the school's problem? Of course it is the school's problem, but the school alone can't solve it. The school can help to solve it by acquainting children and teachers and parents with the fact that segregation of minorities is usually traceable to economic causes.

Nevertheless, mixed student bodies and mixed faculties to some extent are possible even where populations are highly concentrated. I am thinking, for example, of a city on the Mason-Dixon line, which has had segregated schools for nearly a hundred years and which, about four years ago, decided it ought to break that pattern if it could. In a school which had had all Negro children for many years the principal went to the white faculty and said to them, "Would you be willing to have some Negro teachers work with you in this school for a while? Let's see what happens." Well, some of the faculty didn't want to, but others did; and gradually the group agreed to try it. I visited that school and I talked with teachers of both races, and as far

as I could tell they were getting along together perfectly.

Wherever mixed faculties have been tried, as far as I know they have worked. The reason is very simple in terms of sociological law: the fundamental cause of segregation and prejudice is the lack of opportunity of people of various races and religions to mix together and to work together. When people have a chance to live and work together their prejudice tends to dissolve. I say that not simply as a teacher; I say it with the authority of practically every sociologist with whom I have had any acquaintance.

The problem of developing more opportunities for children to mix may be dealt with also to some extent in this way, by absolutely refusing transfers on racial grounds, religious grounds, and by permitting and encouraging children of various schools to visit each other. I notice quite a number of colleagues here this morning and teachers of the Catholic faith. I would like to make this suggestion to them, and to teachers and principals of the public schools who are here also, that opportunity be provided whereby children of your schools visit the public schools, and whereby children of the public schools have an opportunity to visit children in the parochial schools.

I have seen it done; it works wonderfully. A committee of students in an elementary school in one eastern city, for example, will be elected by their fellow classmates, and this committee will then go to visit, let us say, a Catholic school for a day. The Catholic children in turn have a reception committee and they take the children around the school and may even put on an entertainment for them.

I remember living as a boy in a small town in Wisconsin where never once in all my twelve years of schooling in that town did I ever go inside the

Catholic school or the Lutheran school nor, as far as I know, did the children of those schools come to my public school. Is it any wonder we don't understand each other when that kind of segregation continues? Therefore, I stress particularly these inter-school visits as a practical, simple experiment for any school system.

In schools and communities where it is done, we have had no problem. How often I have talked to teachers and principals who have said, "What are you coming around here for, stirring up worry about the problem of minority groups? We don't have any minority problems. There aren't any minorities here—there is no prejudice here." That is nonsense. If you will make a test of the prejudice of your children in the school where there is no contact with members of minority groups, I guarantee you will smoke out lots of prejudice. I will go further and will say that, by and large, you will find the most prejudice precisely in those schools where teachers and principals say, "There is no problem here." The reason for that, of course, is simple: those young people have simply developed the stereotypes and prejudices of their parents, and they have never had immediate contact with people of other groups than their own.

Let me turn now, for a few minutes, to some samples of activities in the field of curricular and extracurricular activities. Here you find again great numbers of activities going on in a great many schools throughout the United States. Don't let me mislead you. I don't believe the evidence would show that a majority of the schools in the United States are doing a darned thing about the minority problem at the present time except ignore it. Of course, that is doing plenty about it. But those who are consciously, system-

atically attacking the problem, are still less by far than half of all the schools in the country. Nevertheless there are many things being done. Let me give you some examples in the curricular area.

There are two ways to get at this problem in the curricular field. One is through what might be called an integrated approach, in which teachers of all subjects in all areas take it upon themselves to help develop sensitivity to the problem and to its solution. The notion that the social study teacher is the only one that has any responsibility ought to be exploded. Every teacher has a responsibility and can do something about it. For example, consider the art teachers, the music teachers, the literature teachers. It is only too obvious that opportunities to study the art, the culture of other people through media of art are tremendous. I dare say that more people—more children—in the United States have some feeling about Russia through having listened to the symphonies of Shostakovitch than they have ever acquired through studying the treatises of dialectical materialism.

The fact of the matter is that music is an international language. It is just possible that, if you don't like the way things are moving with regard to hatreds and hostilities toward the Soviet Union and if you think we at least ought to help young people in the United States make up their own minds and understand that this is a highly complicated and dangerous situation, the least we can do is to get some notion of what Russian culture is like. Perhaps music and literature are among the ways this can be done.

In speaking of the arts may I issue one warning; namely, the easiest kind of intercultural education is that kind which is also frequently the most innocuous and misleading. What I

should like to call the "folk-lore" approach is that approach to intercultural education whereby young people study the quaint customs of the people—you know, the wooden shoes of the little Dutch girl; that is an example; and the Negro spiritual as an indication of the Negro character.

The fact of the matter is that no more do children get an idea of what Dutch people are like by seeing quaint little girls in wooden shoes than they get an idea of what the Negro people are like by listening exclusively to Negro spirituals. A Negro spiritual is an authentic folk art, but it doesn't necessarily typify all Negroes, and we merely stereotype the Negro when we imagine that all he can do is sing these beautiful, spiritual, other-worldly songs like "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot."

I would suggest that perhaps along with "Swing Low Sweet Chariot" some children might benefit by reading a novel like *Black Boy*, by Richard Wright, in their English classes. In other words, beware of the folk-lore approach. It stereotypes and therefore may more mislead than help young people to understand the problems of minority groups.

I said social studies are not the only place where we can work on this problem but they certainly are one place where we can do so. Let me give you one or two examples.

I think I intimated a little earlier (and I would like to stress the point here) that underlying most minority problems you may find an economic factor. The responsible social studies teacher will not hesitate to bring out that economic factor, however controversial it may be. For example, there is no question whatever, from the point of view of our sociological and economic knowledge, that the most fundamental cause of prejudice against the Negro is due to the southern pat-

tern of economic agrarian life which for generations has benefited by exploitation of the Negro, by keeping him ignorant, by keeping him out of unions, by keeping him down.

It is easy to understand the southerner's point of view which causes a part of that pattern; but whether we understand it or not, the fact is that the Negro does the dirty work of the rest of us, not only in the South but in the North, and therefore, because he is the subject of easy exploitation, it is a useful device to develop prejudice and hatred against him. That helps enormously to keep the pattern of segregation and discrimination intact.

Another example of the economic factor at work, which the social studies teacher ought to point out, is with regard to anti-semitism. In many ways prejudice against the Jew is perhaps more dangerous and more insidious than even prejudice against the Negro. All of us know the horrible, unspeakable consequences of that prejudice in Europe, so terrible that I find it difficult to remind you of it.

Anti-semitism exists not only in Europe—it exists, it is rife indeed, it is rising at the present time in the United States. How do we account for it? It is a very complicated question, but one explanation that no teacher should omit is that anti-semitism is a device by which people succeed in blaming other people for their own economic troubles. You know the name of that device. It is called scape-goating. Scape-goating is the method all of us are likely to use at some time or other of finding it so difficult to find ourselves to blame for our troubles that we find somebody else to blame our troubles on.

Hitler, whatever else we may think of him, was a master sociologist. He knew that the best way to develop leadership in Germany was to find a

scape-goat, to develop hatreds against the poor, defeated peoples of postwar Germany, and we know how well he succeeded.

Anti-semitism operates in exactly the same way in the United States. Scape-goating is a method that every child and every teacher in our country should be sensitive to, because by becoming sensitive to it we are at least beginning to purge it.

The natural sciences offer opportunities, too. Sometimes I meet a teacher of, let us say, physiology or chemistry, who will say, "Oh, now, you philosophers, you people in social sciences, I can understand why you go around spouting about this problem, because all you do is emote anyway. But I'm a natural scientist! I am objective, neutral, and I have no responsibility in problems like this."

I think you heard from the paper by Mr. Kennedy that a true teacher of the natural sciences does have a responsibility in the problems of our age, and they have it in the field of intercultural relations, too. For example, any natural science teacher can take a moment to point out that scientific ability is not limited to any one race or any one religion. Perhaps the two greatest scientists of the 20th century were both Jews—Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud.

All of us have heard of George Washington Carver and others. I wonder how many physiology teachers have taken advantage of the opportunity to point out one very simple little fact, and thus at the same moment explode one very widespread, widely-held prejudice, and that is with regard to the nature of blood. It is interesting that a recent survey made by one of our public opinion polls showed that a very large percentage of the people in the United States, somewhere around half or more, still believe that

the blood of Negroes is chemically different from the blood of other races. Of course any physiologist will tell you that there just isn't one grain of truth in that proposition. The bloods of all races are similar in types. Just as a good strong white American sergeant saved the life of Premier Tojo, you remember, by a transfusion, so I remembered once when I was a student at the University of Chicago giving a transfusion to a Negro. Somewhat to my surprise, he recovered. That is a simple fact of science that anyone can easily point out.

I have been talking about the integrated approach to this tremendous problem of intercultural relations, but there is another way to get at it, too, and that is what might be called the direct focused approach. Here I raise another problem. I have run across many principals and superintendents and some teachers who have said that it is not wise, it is not good educational strategy, to focus on these problems in the schools, because by focusing on them you make young people conscious of their differences. I respect that argument; I would like to debate it further. I am not too clear about my own thinking about it at the moment, but just for purposes of argument let me make this assertion, somewhat dogmatically: I agree that the problem of focusing on minorities is one of good educational strategy as to how to do it, but I would certainly disagree with those who say that we never ought to focus on them directly, that we always ought to sneak around and approach them tangentially. How does the scientist operate when he has a problem to solve? Does he sneak around the edges of it or does he tackle it directly and diagnose it forthrightly and over a hypothesis of correction?

The minority problem is a scientific problem, what might be called a disease

of our society, and therefore it needs to be dealt with with the same forthright explicitness as any other problem. Consequently, I would urge the need for the direct approach as well as the indirect approach. Let me give you two or three examples: One example is through providing experimental units in the high schools in anthropology. Ladies and gentlemen, you are missing and I am missing a big bet when we don't try that. Young people who have studied anthropology in high school are fascinated by it. They are fascinated because anthropology is the study of themselves, the study of man. It is not a difficult subject, no more difficult than any other science; therefore it can be difficult or it can be fairly simple depending on how you handle it. If you would like to try it, one of the simplest initial ways to get at it would be, for example, to get hold of that famous little pamphlet published by the Public Affairs Committee, called "Races of Mankind," for ten cents. More information is packed in it about the anthropology of race than any other 32-page book I have ever read. This is the kind of fact, for example, that high school children ought to know: There is not an anthropologist of any reputation anywhere in the world, as far as I have ever heard, who would for a moment stand before an audience like this and defend the proposition that there are any inherent, innate differences between races. All races innately and inherently are equal. That is a pretty big statement, but I know of no anthropologist who would deny it.

That doesn't mean there are no differences between races. Of course there are differences regarding pigmentation of the skin. I believe some anthropologists are now arguing that some race has a different kind of shin bone from other races, but I daresay even Hitler wouldn't argue that the Aryan race is

different because of the shape of the Hitlerian shin bone. Nevertheless, those differences are highly superficial. The differences that do develop are differences of culture, differences due to economic, social, and educational training.

What about intelligence? Well, that is still a controversial subject. It is a controversial subject wherever you talk about it; but the latest compilation of studies made by Professor Otto Klineberg, of Columbia, an authority on this problem, says that so far as evidence now is available there is none to show that there is any basic inherent difference of intelligence between races. Negroes, for example, when they migrate North from the South, develop intelligence which is at least equal to that of their white associates in the North. Now, the intelligence of Negroes in the South is lower than that of Negroes or whites in the North; but why? If Professor Klineberg's evidence is correct, the reason is that the schools of the South, the economic opportunities of the South, are also lower, and that is the issue that we need, as educators, to face.

Anthropology, then, is an interesting experimental unit. Another one that is even more controversial (but I would like to see it tried) is a unit in the great religions of the world. Springfield, Massachusetts, which has become nationally famous for its intercultural program, has experimented with units in the great religions of the world very successfully. Children in about the tenth grade study the great values of Mohammedanism, Buddhism, Protestantism, Judaism, Catholicism, to the development of civilization.

As far as I was able to discover, nobody has ever objected to bringing religion in that sense into the public school. No theology, no sectarianism.

It is interesting that the Springfield unit was developed by a committee of teachers representing the Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant faiths.

These are examples, then, of the focused direct approach. Let me now turn to one or two samples of extracurricular activities. Here again we have marvelous opportunities for learning through living, for what Professor Kilpatrick has called concomitant learnings, the learnings that take place outside the classroom, the kind that takes place through actual experience. All of us have known, for example, of interracial football and basketball games. But it is rather interesting that in my particular study I found two manifestations of greater prejudice in swimming and dancing than in any other extracurricular activities. Here segregation began to operate pretty acutely, even in the North. Some of the most amazing arguments were presented even by school administrators to keep Negroes from the swimming pools. For example, in one city the argument was that the Negro girls use some kind of hairdo that leaves a kind of thin layer of oil on the water, and so therefore "We can't permit Negro girls to swim in the swimming pool." In another city they just closed the swimming pool about a year ago rather than cause trouble. Recently I asked the superintendent if the swimming pool had been repaired. It hasn't. That was over a year ago.

There you have examples of where the problem hasn't been solved; but, by and large, I think I can make this assertion: There has been more progress in the extracurricular field of sports, clubs, orchestras, and bands in bringing children of all racial and religious groups together, than there has been in the curricular area.

May I conclude by just two or three examples from what may be called the

area of community school relations? I want to take this opportunity to underscore a point made earlier. I don't know how you feel about it, but I'll bet you feel the same as I do, that too long we have been thinking of education as a kind of cure-all for everything, a panacea. It is high time we got over that, high time we took a more realistic attitude toward ourselves, and recognized that education never has cured everything and never will, probably, and certainly will never cure this problem alone.

The reason it won't cure it alone is that it is a community problem, an economic problem, and a political problem. But it can help cure it, and it can help cure it more rapidly in the degree that the school becomes integral with the life of the community. This means that teachers, for example, must have not only the right but that they must be encouraged to participate in political and economic and social activities of the community, to become concerned about problems like minority groups, and not be told that they must not because it isn't nice.

You and I heard a lot lately about the fact that teachers are pretty well fed up with a lot of things, among other things with the fact that they can't live normal lives in a lot of ways. One way in which they ought to live more normal lives is by becoming responsible citizens, and that means, for example, becoming active in political and economic groups which are dealing with problems of this kind.

Another way we can get at this minority problem from the community side is by helping parents develop more understanding of the problem. In a few cities parent-teacher associations, for example, have been carrying on extensive activities in the field of intercultural relations. I can think of several cities, perhaps some represented in

this room, where, for example, at Christmas time, instead of celebrating simply Christmas as such, the Jewish and the Christian children together have developed festivals and pageants, showing each other than there is a lot of beauty and noble tradition in the Jewish as well as in the Christian heritage. Parent-teacher associations have often helped make the costumes and present the pageant in different ways.

Courses and lectures in parent-teacher associations dealing with intercultural education might well be substituted for the kind of sewing circle activities which all of us are so familiar with in typical parent-teacher association undertakings.

Adult education ought to be mentioned here. I would like to make another dogmatic assertion with which you might like to disagree: One of the most basically unsolved obligations of American education at the moment is in the area of adult education. Most public schools haven't even scratched the surface of that problem. I would like to see, in the next ten years, departments of adult education become just as integral a part of typical schools in the United States as elementary and secondary schools now are.

That kind of education ought to reach into every kind of group. For example, trade unions. Workers' education, as it is called, is a magnificent place to develop intercultural, inter-racial understanding. This means, too, that in adult education community study we have to deal with controversial issues. The old bugaboo of fear that we might say things that somebody won't like has got to be faced here. We can't solve this problem if we are not willing to recognize that there are many things involved in it that some people aren't going to like to have us say.

I mentioned before, for example, the

power of real estate pressure groups that try to keep certain minority peoples segregated in ghetto-like sections of our cities. That is a fact. If we mean what we say by the kind of education that deals with facts, that is the kind of fact which will have to be studied in our study of the community. It has to be studied, too, by helping children go into the community and see it and talk about it a lot. I don't know of any more enlightening experience for a high school or college student in the city of Minneapolis than to take him on a street car down to the Negro section of that city or of St. Paul.

Community education may be exemplified also by the kind of thing we are doing in Minneapolis at the moment. We are now conducting what is called a self-survey of the entire city with regard to minority problems. Anti-semitism is especially acute there, but there are other kinds of problems also. The Mayor's Council of Human Relations, of which I happen to be a member, for the last year has been working on this survey, but only in the last six weeks have we been intensely and intensively trying to get a picture of ourselves.

This is what we have done. We have set up a committee of about five-hundred citizens. These five-hundred citizens represent every section of the city, churches, labor, business, recreation, education, and the like. These citizens have in turn gone to every street, every business, every school in the city and have asked this question: "What is the situation with regard to minorities? Are you hiring them? Are you firing them? Is there prejudice against them?" All this information is being collected and is being studied by a special staff brought into the city from Fisk University, under the direction of Dr. Charles S. Johnson, prob-

ably the most distinguished expert in this area in the United States.

Here is community self-education with a vengeance. Somebody said recently that the school of the future is going to be built around this conception of the school centered community, not even any longer the community centered school, much less the child centered school. Thank heaven, that is pretty well over with; but the community, the school centered community in which the whole community is educating itself constantly, progressively, evolutionarily—that is the kind of education for the future.

Self-survey of a city the size of Minneapolis is an example of the prognostication of that future objective, for here are the people asking themselves the question, "Where do we stand on this problem of minority groups?" Schools are helping. With the help of Superintendent Voxland, with the help of the University of Minnesota, we are all pitching in, and within six months or so we are going to have this picture, this profile, of ourselves as a great American community.

May I conclude with just one brief paragraph: Let us remember that the examples we have given are only suggestive of what is being, and therefore can be, done. In the last analysis, whatever a school decides to attempt must be its own program emerging from its own needs. The tremendous variation between communities in various sections of the country, particularly between North and South, in their attitudes and practices toward cultural groups, cannot be emphasized too strongly.

Intercultural education, therefore, should develop from the bottom up through the enthusiastic sharing of as many members of the school and community as possible, students and par-

ents, as well as teachers and principals, with sensitive regard for the customs and attitudes of each locality.

At the same time it would be incorrect to suppose that school A or B can learn nothing from school C or D. Actually, those who have begun to grapple with the intercultural problem in earnest have already proved certain conclusions from which others may

greatly benefit: That complete indifference or inactivity can no longer be justified to America's conscience; that America can ill afford to postpone its agenda of unfinished business in the field of intercultural relations, and that no school committed to democratic values can henceforth honestly ignore its own share in a nationwide program now fast gaining momentum.

WHAT THE HIGH SCHOOLS ARE DOING TO DEVELOP NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING¹

A Panel of Student Leaders²

CHAIRMAN YOUNGERT: One of the most profound stories in the literature of God and man is that which tells us that no child of Israel who left Egypt would enter the promised land. The profundity of that story lies in the fact that it is true of every generation of man that has lived, and probably is true of most honest people, that no person enters the promised land.

Yearningly, in the next part of the program, we are going to try to make the promised land possible for us by joining forces with the young people who, we hope, will see it. In some respects that might seem a cowardly thing; on the other hand, perhaps it would be a courageous thing for a generation of people to turn to youth for help at this time.

We follow now with a panel of young people chosen from certain schools. Professor Harold Hand will be moderator, and they will take over at once.

MODERATOR HAND: I will ask these young people to introduce themselves

¹ This was the third of three features under the topic, "Education for National and International Understanding," presented at Chicago, March 26, 1947. This report is practically a verbatim account.

² Eugene Youngert, superintendent of the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois, presided over the general program. Panel moderator was Harold Hand, of the University of Illinois. The high school students were Steve Hlavach, Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois; Jared Ingersoll, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois; Mary Rountree, Horace Mann High School, Gary, Indiana; Barbara Ann Browne, University High School, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois; William Hodgson, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois; Gregory Beggs, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois; and Helen Munari, Wells High School Chicago, Illinois.

and name the schools which they represent.

STEVE HLAVACH: My name is Steve Hlavach. I am a first-generation American and a member of a minority group. I would like to express the opinion of the minority groups in Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, on the topic of human relations.

JARED INGERSOLL: I am Jared Ingersoll. I am seventeen. I have always been very interested in the problems of the adaptations of our society to the problems of the day. My family has been here in the United States since 1628, so if I speak on the cultural problem it will be from that vantage point. A great-uncle of mine was a signer of the Constitution, so as a long-line American I will speak.

MARY ROUNTREE: I am Mary Rountree. I am representing seven high schools in Gary, Indiana. I am a representative of only one, but I have studied the problem and am very much interested and would like to contribute my part.

BARBARA ANN BROWNE: I am Barbara Browne, of University High School at Normal, Illinois, connected with Illinois State Normal University. There is nothing particularly outstanding about me except that I am a debater.

WILLIAM HODGSON: I am Bill Hodgson, from New Trier High School, Winnetka. I play basketball on the team and I have an office in the All-Boys' Club that includes all the boys in the school.

GREGORY BEGGS: I am Gregory

Beggs. I am from the Oak Park Township High School. I play a little football. I didn't get to play with Ingersoll, but I have met him and talked to him. I am president of the High School Conference on International Affairs, which I will tell you about in a little while.

HELEN MUNARI: I am Helen Munari, of the Wells High School. Since I represent a cosmopolitan neighborhood, I hope some of the problems we solve will help you solve your problems.

MODERATOR HAND: The order in which these young people are going to make their remarks is different from the way they are seated on the platform. We have had virtually no advance preparation. We decided that probably the most helpful thing would be to relay to you the story of things that are going on in the high schools which these young people represent. There will be one exception. The young man who speaks last will more or less express the point of view of students in reference to a sort of world outlook; the others will indicate what is going on today.

The young people themselves agreed that we would open with Gregory, who will again mention his school when he starts; then I will tell you to whom to pass the microphone.

GREGORY BEGGS: I wondered how to start out my résumé of what we are doing at Oak Park High School, and I thought it might be interesting to take it from the slant of a visitor who has just come in the front door, who doesn't know a thing about the school but who begins by walking down the halls.

You will come with me through the front door. As we walk down the hall you notice a sign on the wall. It reads, "Blueprints for a Better Tomorrow." The visitor wonders what this means, so we ask a student passing by. He

explains that the slogan, "Blueprints for a Better Tomorrow," is the theme of the Oak Park High School Conference on International Affairs. It is a conference held annually, and it is run by the students, with very little faculty supervision. We are sponsored by the Oak Park Senior Council on International Affairs, and they have the advisers who advise us.

This year we were fortunate to have as a speaker Everett Hollis, the news director of CBS. That was on a Saturday night, and Sunday afternoon we had Dr. Walter Johnson, professor of history at the University of Chicago. After the speakers bring us their message we have a discussion period and questions are asked from the floor about various topics in the field of world affairs.

Our student tells us, "You might be interested in some more conferences that are held. Every fall, about the second week in November, we have what we call the Boys' Conference and the Girls' Conference. These are held to give an idea of the problems confronting young people of today. This year the Boys' Conference had as its topic 'Education,' which didn't particularly relate to world affairs. Last year the theme was 'The Fifth Freedom.' That was the freedom of minority groups, the freedom of ideas, the freedom of democracy. We had as our speakers then Norman Thomas and the noted scientist, Dr. Percy Julian. Never having attended the Girls' Conference, I couldn't tell you exactly what went on there, but I do know that the general theme of their meeting was on national and international relations."

As we leave the student and walk down the hall a little farther we notice a history class in session, and a lively discussion seems to be going on. We walk in and find that there is a dis-

cussion going on about one of the articles in a little paper than is sent to all the history classes. The article might be about the atomic bomb, it might be about the position of Russia today, it might be about any subject in world affairs or in national affairs, and it is being quite heatedly discussed in that history class, as in others.

This has me out of character a bit. I think one of the most interesting years I spent was last year when I studied American history with Mr. Riem in our high school, and we got into some very lively (shall I say) discussions on the position of Russia in the world.

Going down the hall a little farther we notice two students talking, and one of them says, "For public speaking I am supposed to attend the Monday night lecture next week. We are having a noted speaker, some Army officer I think, who was in charge of atomic bomb arrangements at Bikini, who is going to bring us some very interesting facts."

Walking down the hall a little farther, we go into a class called an expository writing class. They are having a lively discussion about the subject of whether David Lilienthal should be approved or not. The teacher brings out the point that this is training in logical thinking, and all the material in some way is related to picking out the most important facts in world affairs, and how they affect us.

Turning the corner and looking at the lunch room and finding nothing to eat, we walk down farther and we find a member of the Debating Club talking to a member of another Debating Club. They are discussing the question of whether or not we should take over the Pacific islands. Should the United States take them over or shouldn't it? Would it be a question of imperialism or would it not? That is what the

debates in most of the debating clubs are about. That is what they are concerned with most of the time.

Now we go upstairs to the second floor and look in the classical room, and there is Miss Brubaker, the head of our Latin department, checking figures and looking over a column of numbers she has in front of her. We ask her what it is. "Why, this is a column of figures that I am adding up to see how much we have sent to Greece for Greek Relief."

We ask her, "Did you take up a collection in your classes?"

"Yes, the Latin department went into the classical field and we saw that Greece wasn't in a good position at all, in fact, was in quite a bad fix, so we took up a collection in all the Latin classes, and sent over \$800, the largest contribution of a group of this kind to Greek War Relief. Also, we sent a lot of old clothes which were greatly appreciated, and I got a letter just last week saying 'Thank You' to us. The letter was three pages long."

As we walk a little farther we see a student council meeting in progress. Dr. Youngert is telling us about a plan that has been working out in the school. We ask him what it is and he tells the student council that Oak Park High School has been sponsoring four schools in the war-torn countries. There is one in Belgium, one in Holland and two in France. They are being sponsored by the Oak Park High School.

We are very interested, also, in the correspondence that comes back from the high schools we are sponsoring. We like to go into that quite a bit and talk about it. Also, we have letters from various countries, such as France or Mexico, where students are studying English, and letters are sent from those English to Spanish and French students in our school.

I would like to close my remarks by a very short quotation—in fact, two words, which Dr. Johnson gave us last Sunday. The question was brought to him during the question period, "What can we as students do to promote national and international relations?" He smiled and said he hoped he hadn't been talking for an hour in vain, and then he gave us a very serious thought in the words, "Be informed." To be informed and to begin to think about the situation in the United States and in the world today, is one of the most important things that high school students can do today.

MODERATOR HAND: Now we will turn to Helen, and again I will ask her to remind you of her school as she starts.

HELEN MUNARI: I am from the Wells High School. The people at Wells are from many different races. We have a sprinkling of colored people; we have Poles and Italians. They make up the majority. We have Japs, Mexicans, Russians, and so on. We also have a number of religions represented at the school. Catholics are in the majority. There is a considerable number of Protestants and Greek Orthodox Catholics and Jews. I can say that never once have we had a serious difference because of the situation, because we have such a mixture at the school. We seem to get along very well.

We stress the point that good citizenship recognizes interdependence of all people in the family, school, community, national and international relationships, and good citizens practice democratic human relationships.

We have various organizations in our school, and one of the most prominent is the WCA, Wells Civic Association. It is the student government, and is patterned after the government of the United States. It is run in accordance with strict parliamentary pro-

cedure. We have a convention at which officers are nominated, and later in the fall the officers are elected by secret ballot.

The division is a unit in itself; it is something like the states. In each division we have officers, and the president of the division is the delegate to the Student Council. The Student Council has at its head the President of the Wells Civic Association. On the other hand, we have civic assemblies which take up problems of the school and present various musical organizations to the students, and other work that is going on in the school. The scientific assembly is run by the Vice President of the Wells Civic Association.

The Association plays an important part in fostering unity and cooperation, because there are so many little details that have to be worked out in order to solve the big problems, and each individual contributes something. In that way they feel that they have worked the whole problem out together, and therefore everyone does support it and pick it up—anything that is decided.

We also have planning groups within the curriculum itself. We have a scientist planning group, an English group and an art planning group, and they discuss the work of the various departments and offer suggestions for improvement.

In the English curriculum we make further provisions to teach and practice human relations. In the 11-A semester we have a particular unit called "Developing Spiritual and Ethical Sides of One's Personality." In this class we study the contributions of all religions to the good life, not one but all, and what various people have contributed. We do learn that we must stand by our convictions regardless of contrary opinions. We study the Bible and how it applies to everyone. We

study various hymns, and so on, and about the people who contribute the various hymns. We see that everyone contributes to religion. There isn't one religion—it is all fine and we get along together.

The athletic program motto is "Let the Best Man Win." Anybody can join our teams regardless of race, color or anything else that might cause a mixup.

In the 10-A social science curriculum we have a unit called "Developing Good Relations with our Southern Neighbors." This unit or class has to be taken by everyone in the school. We study our southern neighbors and learn what they are like, and their customs, and we see how some of their customs are brought into our country.

We have a school newspaper. Any one is free to join the newspaper. That works as the Civic Association works. Everyone contributes something, and so the people feel they have done much, and they support the issues that are acted upon.

I would like to speak about community matters, because Wells High School works very much with the community. In the community we have many different schools and agencies, and we work with other schools, agencies, churches, and so on. Each year Wells High School presents a Christmas pageant. The pageant stresses mutual respect and good will among all peoples and among all faiths and views. We invite the elementary schools, both public and parochial, and I am very glad to say that all the schools come to see the Christmas pageant. After they have seen the pageant there are students who take them on a tour of the school, and they have lunch in our cafeteria, and so they get to see how our school works and what goes on in the school.

We are going to have an art exhibit

at Chicago Commons, at Grant and Morgan Streets. The motto is "Art Knows No Barriers." That is the way in which we get into the community.

We have many community houses. As a matter of fact, our area is known to have more community houses than any other district in the city. We have many parks and other organizations, and the people learn to play and work together. That is the most important thing. We have Chicago Commons and Northwestern Settlement, Erie Chapel, Emerson House, and others, and they teach appreciation of crafts and music and the art of all nations. We have a Polish Arts Society which interprets Polish art, music and literature, to Americans, and in turn the Americans interpret the music, literature, and art of America.

There is a Polish university group and Federation of University Clubs which give two scholarships to two Polish people from the school each year. In that way these people who may not have had an opportunity to go to a larger university and better their community by doing so, have that opportunity.

We have a Polish Roman Catholic Union also. They have a museum. This museum has various things of the Polish people in it. The social science classes make it a point to visit the museum and see the contributions of the Polish people. That is required in the social science classes.

The main thing we try to do is to understand the culture of the people. We can't condemn one race. In our classes especially we do a lot of oral work, and in this way we get acquainted with our fellow students and know what they are talking about. We know how they feel by having many discussions and panel discussions in the class itself. We try to understand the culture of the various peoples. In our

classes we study all nationalities and all races and all countries, and see the good and the bad that they contribute as a whole. We don't try to take one nationality and say, "This is all good and this is all bad." We take points from each nationality and each race and try to understand, through music, art and literature, and by having these various shows given for the community. We have various talents brought together from all nationalities, and so we appreciate how we may all work together. In this way Wells High School, I believe, solves some of its problems of racial differences, and so on.

MODERATOR HAND: Next will be Bill Hodgson, and he will again remind you of his school.

BILL HODGSON: I am from New Trier High School. At New Trier we try to work on the question of international understanding by developing good citizenship at home, and by discussing problems in the world, such as the Greek situation, in the social science classes. First, I will take up this matter of developing good citizenship at home.

We have a Boys' Club made up of all the boys in the school. We wrote a citizenship paper a few years ago, and I will work a little from that.

Our superintendent, Mr. Gaffney, feels that when a person graduates from New Trier, with his diploma should go good citizenship as well as an understanding of the courses he has taken.

Some of the ways in which we try to develop good citizenship are through this citizenship paper. We publish it. There is a Freshman Handbook also that carries it. We are working now on a Code of Ethics in the Boys' Club, which we are going to publish upon its completion. The general theme, as far as we have progressed, seems to be that one should be proud of his school and

his family and of everything he does, and he should let others know he is proud of those things.

In sports there is no separation. Sports are for everyone in New Trier. We have Jewish people and Japanese and Negroes. We are all on the swimming teams, the basketball teams, the football teams, and we work together and there seems to be no friction. There is a little anti-semitism, but it isn't bad.

We also have an award for the boy and the girl in each graduating class who has developed into the most outstanding citizen, sportsman, and so on. There is an award for each heading. The winners are elected by the entire student body. That helps everyone to strive for them.

We also try to get along with our surroundings, not just within the school but with other schools and within the community. We have had a little trouble with some other schools in our own League. In athletics we have had a little trouble, and whenever trouble arises we have a council. With Evanston we have an Interschool Council that meets four or five times a year. We also have a party between the schools and the students, and this develops good relations. We have to admit that last year we had a little trouble with Oak Park about a football game, and afterwards we sent a council there and they got together and really had a good time. They worked the whole thing out, and every one was happy.

We have drives during which time we send money, books, and so on, overseas. We have seven schools overseas which we sponsor. We just finished a book drive, and sent five hundred books to a school in the South Pacific islands. They are using the books now. That is one way we try to develop good citizenship.

World problems in the classes are handled mostly in the English and social science departments. In social science and history classes some of the teachers take about five minutes a day just for current events, during which time we discuss what is going on. For two days during each six-week period they have a discussion which they call the Simpson Award discussion. They pick a leader from each class, and send him to a meeting, where they discuss the technique of the discussion. It goes something like this:

They work out five main points, starting from the simplest point, government labor control. One extreme would be that the government should have no control over labor, but should keep out of it, and the other extreme is that the government should have as much control as possible over labor and still keep within the principles of democracy. In the discussion during these two days they go from one extreme to the other, and by the time it is over the class has a pretty fair idea of the various points.

Some of the other things we have discussed are whether the United States should take over some islands in the Pacific, and also how far the government should go in cooperation with the United Nations. In the history classes that sort of thing has given the students a chance to express their opinion. It is not just an expression, however, because the leader in charge of the discussion prepares a bibliography and each student is required to read approximately ten pages before they go into the discussion.

We have one English class in which we have adopted the motto of the University of Chicago's "Great Books" course. It has to be changed a little bit because it is a high school and we don't run the classes the same way. We take great books, most of them

treatises on government (we just finished Adam Smith and are now reading Karl Marx) and we read about governments and try to discuss the principles. In the English course we read four days a week, and on Friday we have a two-hour discussion. We have half-hour lunch periods and so are able to work in one major period and two shorter periods for two hours of discussion on Friday. One gets a lot accomplished in those discussions.

I have just mentioned these two ways in which we try to develop things at New Trier, and I hope I have helped you.

MODERATOR HAND: Steve will be next.

STEVE HLAVACH: I am the representative of Bloom Township High School, in Chicago Heights, Illinois. In beginning my speech I would like to read a portion of a book entitled *One America*: "Leaders from the days of Christ, Moses and Mohammed, always preached national power by national unity. Individuals who do not agree—a League of Nations who do not agree—this discord leads to world war, the great tragedies of which have destroyed mankind. Americans must learn to live without discord, to eliminate friction so that they will be able to live in harmony and to make progress with their ambitions and professions."

We at Bloom are very much aware of this. We have a school attendance of eighteen hundred. The pupils belong to twenty-six different nationalities. There are many different races represented, and religions, and we all live and work together in harmony. We have to if we are to get along and try to develop democracy.

The majority of the students at Bloom come from Europe—south and central Europe. The three greatest groups are the Italians, the Germans, and the Poles. There are also many

Norwegians, Swedes, English, Slovaks, French, Belgians, Dutch, and even Irish.

The solution to problems that have come to light is revealed under the general heading of administrative procedure, curriculum, guidance, and the social life of the school. We at Bloom are fortunate in having a very good administrator. Mr. Raymond D. Meade, our principal, is ambitious for our school. He attends many conferences and gets a lot of good ideas and brings them back to Bloom and tries to sell them to the students. We try to take up these ideas and work them out in our school and thereby solve many problems.

Curriculum is next. Again we are very fortunate. We have many subjects in which we can learn about the civilizations of the world and the cultures they have left behind, such topics as world history, in which we study the governments of the ancients, their contributions to civilization, and their problems. We study American history and our present government, and discuss the problems we are facing today, and a special subject called "Problems of Democracy." This is a one-year course. I am taking that now. In this class we actually discuss the problems of democracy. There are one or two panels each week prepared by the students of our class. They sit around a table and have a panel discussion. They are free to say whatever they like, without being hindered in any way or being persecuted because they may say something wrong.

We give our opinions to the class, and after we are done there is an informal discussion. We try to hash out the problems. First we see what the problem actually is, then we see why it exists, and its circumstances. Then we try to work out a solution. In this way we try to solve many problems of

democracy and promote better human welfare.

Two years ago this class was privileged to be instructed by Miss Ethel Alfenfels, a noted anthropologist. She taught for six weeks at our school, and the students who were in the class at that time greatly benefited by her teaching.

In our school we have a great variety of teachers, and they act as our guides. We have a Student Council, and it has as its sponsor the Dean of Boys, Mr. Charles Cassidy. Mr. Cassidy is also the sponsor to the Illinois High School Student Council Association, and he is very active in student government, and tries to help us in every way possible.

The most important point is the social life of the school. In our school we have a variety of athletic sports, football, baseball, basketball, and track. The girls have badminton, bowling, and various other sports. All races and creeds are represented on the teams. There is no discrimination or segregation whatever in the teams or their operation. Also, in our cafeteria people come and go as they please, without anyone policing them.

Let me mention our football team to show you that there is no racial discrimination. We had a few Negro boys who were very good, but one boy was drafted into the Army and could not make the first team. On our team we had at one end a Slovak boy; next to him was a German tackle; next to the German was an Italian guard; next to him was a German center; and on the other side of him was a Polish guard; next to him was another Italian tackle, and then another Italian end. The quarterback was Italian and the halfbacks were Italians. The fullback was Polish.

The second team was even greater in its spread of races and creeds—Germans, Dutch, Norwegians, and anyone

else you could think of. We have Mexicans who participate in many sports, also. The greatest variation of races in athletic events in our school is in track. Many of the track boys are Negroes, and they work hard with the rest of the boys for unity. We also have many assemblies which help us. We have such speakers as Mr. Salom Rick, the author of *The Syrian Yankee*, and many other men well versed in the problems of human relations.

It is our aim at Bloom to help the students create better human relations. We are all striving for a perfect student government. Our school is far from perfect, but we are not the worst of the bunch, either. We are working hard and we all have our noses to the grindstone, no matter who we are—Polish, Jew, Italian, Negro, or even Mexican.

When we work for better human relations we must remember the quotation our late President Roosevelt spoke, "Today we are faced with the preeminent fact that if civilization is to survive we must cultivate the science of human relations. The only thing we have to fear is fear itself." That is the motto we are working with today in trying to solve this problem of human relations.

MODERATOR HAND: Mary will be next, and again I ask her to mention her school.

MARY ROUNTREE: First of all, I would like to tell you that I am not only representing my own school, but am representing the seven high schools in Gary. For that reason I would like to give you a sociological picture of our city.

Gary is only forty-one years old; therefore we have no traditions or established customs to keep. We have a very highly mobile population. This makes for a problem in establishing a continual program of education and intercommunity feeling. Our popula-

tion is made up of 66 percent native-born, 18 percent Negro, and 15 percent foreign-born. Of course these three groups again are divided into religious groups and various other minorities.

In our seven school centers in Gary we have what is known as a community system; therefore, it is possible for a student to start out at kindergarten and go through college in the same school.

You have probably all heard of our one mixed school in Gary, called Froebel. We also have one all-colored school and the rest of the schools are all-white, so we have a situation in which we have segregation. In our one mixed school the students went out on strike in the fall of 1945; I am sure most of you read the newspaper accounts of it. What you probably do not realize is that Gary realized that there was a problem among the minority groups which make up our population, long before this evidence came to light. As many as fifteen years before that a group of forward-looking leaders in our city organized what is known as the Anselm Forum. It was an organization made up of representatives of the various minority groups in our city.

Directly following the Detroit race riots our Chamber of Commerce got busy. We noticed that it (race prejudice) was rising. They set about to investigate the situation in Gary, and they made a very extensive survey from all sides. They had Negro leaders, they had leaders of all minority groups in Gary, with emphasis on the Negro-white situation. This was followed up by the School Board who, with the aid of the Bureau for Intercultural Relations, held a series of conferences for administrators and teachers.

The strike at Froebel followed these conferences. However, that was no reflection on the conference. I am merely pointing out that we got busy

on the problem before this showed up. The strike was carried out without violence, and there was no rioting.

In Gary the riot was regarded as a definite growth. The strike resulted in a statement by the students at Froebel which stated that the strike was not held against Negro students at the school—it was a strike against discrimination in any Gary school. This served to hasten consideration by the School Board.

We see the problem emerging here where we have segregated schools, and this situation arose probable more by chance than by a written policy. So in August, 1946, our School Board issued a policy which will end discrimination in the Gary schools not later than September, 1947.

In the meantime we have a problem of orienting the community as well as the pupils to this idea. We have a School Committee for Democratic Living, which is made up of teachers and administrators. They get together, and through materials presented in the classroom and through contacting various organizations throughout the community they make an attempt to orient the pupils and the community to the change.

We have also been subjected to various experimental tests, and we have had courses in our schools which have been experimental courses, in an effort to determine just how student thinking can be influenced by reading and discussions. We don't know in our particular school whether we will have mixed Negro and white people next year or not. Each school will serve a certain district, and if there are no Negroes in our district then we shall have no Negroes in that school.

Because of the uncertainty of the situation we are getting ready in our school and are trying to prepare the students for this change. You can see

the development as I go along. First it came from the Chamber of Commerce, then through our administrators and through the teachers, in an effort to stimulate student thinking. We are very proud of the fact that the students have taken the initiative in this project through their student councils and have gone ahead on their own. They have realized the problem, and we are very proud of the way it has been carried out.

Our student council has sponsored various conventions throughout the city, of student council presidents. We meet together with the mixed school and the all-colored school and with all the white schools, and discuss common problems in our school, not evading the question of these people coming in. We have been able to face the problem in a very diplomatic manner, and discuss it and really get at the thing, not necessarily drawing conclusions but certainly having some straight thinking on the idea.

Also, our student council has sponsored discussion groups which have gone out into the communities. These discussion groups have been made up of representatives from the various schools, who have gone into the communities and have discussed the problem very frankly.

Gradually, through this association, we feel we are building up understanding. We have made preparations for this change in our own school. We have sponsored such drives as courtesy drives, and school spirit drives, and projects we have undertaken for the student body. This is in an effort more or less to clean house in our school and get every thing ready so that when we have people coming in they will be glad to come to our school, and we will be proud of our school and will build up pride. By so doing we feel we will be able better to face the problem.

In our own school, through our speech department, we have sponsored two radio programs; one came in the spring before the disturbance at Froebel, and it was an original script entirely on racial prejudice. There was one this fall following the policy of the School Board, which attempted to explain the policy and just how it would affect all Gary.

In sports we have always entered into competition with the mixed schools; however, it has been only in the last four years that we have had any competition with our one all-colored school.

We have a Girls' Club Conference that is held annually. This conference is held at various schools throughout the country. We have had them in the various schools and have had officers in our Girls' Club who have been colored, and we have had many groups represented even in the officers as well as in the Club itself.

We have made only a start toward solving our problem. We have to go about it in more or less a trial-and-error way. We feel that the fact that people are willing to give their time and effort to this problem is sufficient evidence of a real step forward.

MODERATOR HAND: Barbara will be next.

BARBARA BROWNE: I am from University High School, Normal, Illinois. Perhaps you have heard of Bloomington. That is one of our suburbs.

According to political scientists and students of international affairs, the world today is in a testing period. The things that are done now by the various nations, and the policies they make now, will determine the future of civilization.

Furthermore, there are really only two nations left that have much power in the world, our country and Russia. Therefore, as future citizens (which is

rather a trite phrase, but nonetheless true), as future citizens we have to take the responsibility of trying to solve some of the world problems and some of the national problems.

We in school have increasing responsibility to promote the right kind of international understanding, and the schools must be the ones to help us assume this responsibility. In fact, the schools are practically the only ones that can help us. The schools are the only agency that can help us assume this responsibility, because none of the other agencies seem to be doing their part.

At University High School we did this by a unit which we had in world history on Russia. This unit corresponded to the direct or focused approach that the speaker before us was talking about. We feel in having this unit that we are tackling the problem directly. The interesting thing about this unit was that it was not planned in the curriculum at the beginning of the year, but since in this class every Friday we had current events and spent the whole hour discussing current issues, so many questions came up about Russia that we felt a unit of this kind would be beneficial.

Some of the questions that came up, for instance, which helped to mould the unit work, were: How do people live in a socialist state? What was the effect of the war on Russia? What are the schools like in Russia? Does Russia have a culture of its own? What does Russia want? What position does Stalin hold in the government? And, most important: Can we get along with Russia?

So for six weeks we read and discussed Russia, until we are thoroughly saturated with Russia. We read pamphlets and books and magazines and articles. In fact, we had to depend mostly on current material for our

study because much of this isn't in the text books we are using; so every day we scanned the papers for articles about Russia, and we would bring them to class and discuss them in forums and panels, and debates, and all forms of discussions.

We also saw several movies on Russia, one in particular that was very good, "The Battle of Russia," and it helped us to understand a great many things about Russia which I will explain to you later.

We listened to some Russian music and studied the Russian ballet and other forms of culture and drama.

We got many important things from this unit. One was an understanding of the geography and the people in Russia. For instance, do you know there are 180 nationality groups in Russia and 150 language groups? This is an important factor in dealing with the Russian people and with the nation, we felt. Also, it helps us to see the strength of Russia and also its potential strength.

Much propaganda has been put forth lately that Russian people are lazy, stupid, and inefficient. We found that was not true. We found it out from the success of the five-year plans, and by the way the Russian army drove back the thought-to-be-invincible German army during this last war. So we found the Russian people are really alert, full of energy and vitality.

We talked a lot about the government of Russia, what communism really is and what it has to offer the people of Russia. We talked about life on collective farms. We discussed the Russian Constitution of 1946, and we found that the Russian people do have civil liberties but their meaning of some of these terms is a little different from ours.

By studying the past history of Russia we were able to interpret some

of the things Russia is doing today. For instance, ever since the beginning of Russia it has been land- and ice-locked, and ever since the Tsars up to the present time Russia has been looking for seaports. That in part explains her interest in the Dardanelles and the countries around her.

Another thing that explains some of Russia's actions is that for hundreds of years Russia has been invaded by other countries. First Russia was invaded by the Swedes long ago, then the Poles, by Germany in 1946 led by Hitler. Russians above all do not want that to happen again, and so they have their almost fanatic desire to get other countries around them as buffer states so that it won't happen again.

Perhaps the most important thing we got from this unit was a sense of responsibility for solving world problems. During the war, to put this next phrase in the vernacular of high school students, we "knocked ourselves out." Every Saturday night I helped the Girl Scouts, and everybody gave volunteer time to the Red Cross and other such organizations. Since the end of the war that enthusiasm has dropped off, and now the people of the United States, and especially the young people, seem to have the attitude of spectators—interested, yes, but not willing to give time and not willing to act.

From this unit we began to get this attitude of responsibility. We all wanted to do something about this problem of Russia. We felt there was more intensity and unity of purpose since we took this course. We felt we must spend as much time and more time today to make the peace a success than we did during the war.

Here is a short quotation from General Marshall, who put it very well: "You should understand fully the special position the United States now occupies in the world geographically,

financially, militarily and scientifically, and the implications involved, the development and sense of responsibility for a world order and security, the development of a sense of the overwhelming importance of this country's action and failures to act in relation to world order and security. These in my opinion are great 'musts' for your generation."

In my opinion they are great "musts" for our generation, too. So through this unit on Russia, which is only one of the things we did at University High—most of the other things we have done have been mentioned already by other members of the panel—we feel we have made our humble contribution to world understanding.

MODERATOR HAND: At our little informal breakfast meeting it was decided by the group that we would mix this up just a little bit, that we would have reports from schools, and that one member of the group would express a student's point of view. We had hopes of having time for discussion.

The point of view he is going to express has not been discussed by the group. Nobody except himself on the panel knows what he is going to say. Our thought was that we would end these descriptions by a student expressing a point of view in reference to international relationships, and what-not, and then we hoped we would have time to discuss it on the panel. I very much fear, Dr. Youngert, that we won't have time, but we do want this young man to have his full ten minutes.

We do want you all to understand that because the program was delayed a little it isn't quite panning out as we had hoped. It does not mean that the school this young man comes from doesn't have a lot of things to report. We decided as a group that there

ought to be a student point of view expressed.

JARED INGERSOLL: I am Jared Ingersoll of Evanston Township High School.

Today all of us are living in the shadow of the atomic bomb. The atom scientists have told us that we have about ten years at the most in which to perfect some sort of method of controlling the discovery of atomic energy. That doesn't give youth much of a chance to have its say in how this program shall be worked out.

The education of adults to the realization of the full implications of the bombings of Nagasaki and Hiroshima must come first. The people who vote, you out in the audience, must be the ones who at least do the beginning work in establishing a real international organization to prevent war, to control atomic energy.

Youth hasn't got a great deal of faith in the future right now. They have seen that the previous generation (the one before yours) created a glorified debating society, a hopelessly ineffectual League of Nations. They have also seen that your generation is doing and has done the same thing. They created a blood brotherhood of the hopelessly ineffectual league of nations in the UN. This organization isn't doing anything, and because of its very organization, because of the philosophy behind it, the unwillingness to face the realities of life, it is not going to succeed.

Adult education is the only solution that the world can give to achieve peace. Since leadership apparently has devolved upon the American people, Americans are the ones who must realize the importance of the atomic bomb. They do not realize it or they wouldn't have created another debating society in the UN. That problem can be partially aided toward solution only by educational institutions.

There still remains a great deal to be done. The schools can help, and they certainly aren't doing very much. My school has done as much as or more than any of the students here on the panel have said their schools have done. We have been doing it for twenty years. Nothing to meet this new crisis has been really developed, I am sorry to say. I don't consider that unusual. I don't consider very significant the things that have been done in the schools themselves.

The adult education program has been slightly broadened, but the most important book of our time, *The Anatomy of Peace*, is not one of the great books that are being discussed in the adult education program—the book that shows that world government is the only solution to the problem of war.

The United States would never have come into being if the original confederation had not been willing to give up some of their sovereignty to a national government. No nation in the world—even our great nation today—seems willing to do that. They will not be willing to do it until the people lead the government. The government will never lead the people in a democracy. People do not realize the situation.

The schools have a responsibility. They can help people see the realities of the world. Not nearly enough is being done.

The final solution of the problems of the body politic depends on the development of young men and women of enlightened social responsibility. That is the job of formalized education. Today I think you are going to see in youth a prototype, a replica, of the twenties in morals and ethics. You can see it today. The way people regard honesty, just plain, garden variety honesty—that situation must be faced, and the schools can help bring a constructive attitude toward it. They

aren't doing very much there, either.

Youth has not received very much from this generation in the way of encouragement and in the way of constructive applications and intelligence. Much more must come if the horrible things, the bombings of Nagasaki and Hiroshima, are to be prevented from becoming a terrible reality.

MODERATOR HAND: I didn't want to mention this before we began lest the panel would think I was in any way talking down to them or treating them as though they were anything but what they are, a very intelligent group of young men and young women. Their ages run from sixteen to eighteen, an average of seventeen. I submit that the great State of Georgia, if all people were of the caliber of these young people, could lower their voting age a couple of years. You remember they went down to eighteen.

I would like to think that 10 percent of the American population is as literate and as well informed and as intelligent and capable of self-expression as this young group has been this forenoon. We had hoped to have ten or fifteen minutes for questions from the floor to the young people in reference to the illustrations they have given, because those they have given have by no means exhausted the list.

Secondly, we hoped to have probably ten or fifteen minutes among ourselves on the panel to bat back and forth some of the ideas that Jared expressed so concisely in this remarks. I think I am obliged to turn the microphone back now to Dr. Youngert.

CHAIRMAN YOUNGERT: I see a few people in the room whose evident dignity means they are college presidents, or almost that. I am glad Mr. Hand pointed out to them that they have not been listening to a senior class in college, but to juniors and seniors of high schools.

PROMOTING WORLD CITIZENSHIP THROUGH AN IMPROVED READING PROGRAM¹

WILLIAM S. GRAY

University of Chicago

I DEEM it a real privilege to participate in the discussion of a theme that is as timely and significant as the one we are considering this afternoon.

In a recent radio address Archibald MacLeish² emphasized vigorously one of the crucial problems which America faces in preparing youth for world citizenship. In the field of world affairs, he said, America suffers from "a split citizenship." Whether we wish it or not, we are citizens of a world economy. Whatever our wish may be, we are not as yet "citizens of a world society." Without world understanding and citizenship, "a world economy cannot function effectively and in peace." It follows that one of the urgent responsibilities that schools and colleges face today is to promote among youth the breadth and depth of understanding and the attitudes on which a world community can be built. The chief aim is not merely to prevent war, but rather to help establish conditions under which the peoples of the world can live securely and strive to attain common social and spiritual values.

INCREASING DEMANDS MADE ON READERS

The need of promoting world citizenship is but one of many recent demands that call for curriculum changes and for broader understandings and keener

interpretations in reading on the part of high school and college students. The economic crash of 1929, for example, was followed by urgent appeals that schools and colleges promote a broader and more penetrating insight into our economic pattern of life—its strengths and its weaknesses. During the thirties new national ideologies were discussed in a manner that threatened to undermine the stability of our form of government. As means of counteracting this danger, schools and colleges were urged to give extended training in identifying and critically interpreting propaganda and to develop a clear understanding and deep appreciation of the basic premises underlying our democratic pattern of life. More recently, conflicts in the interests of different racial, religious, and economic groups also assumed serious proportions. The plea was voiced on every hand, and still continues, that schools and colleges aid in developing intergroup understandings and appropriate attitudes and patterns of behavior.

In response to these and similar developments, radical instructional changes have occurred in both high schools and colleges. New objectives have been defined, new curricular units have been developed, and the intellectual demands made on students have been greatly increased. Of special significance is the fact that reading requirements have been graded steadily upwards not only in the amount of reading required, but also in clarity of comprehension and keenness of interpretation. Equally significant is the fact that similar changes and increasing

¹ Read at Chicago, March 26, 1947. This paper is related to the general theme, "Promoting World Citizenship in School and College."

² Archibald MacLeish, "U.N.E.S.C.O.: The Labor of International Understanding," *Talks: A Quarterly Digest of Addresses Broadcast Over the Columbia Network*, XII (January, 1947), 38-40.

intellectual demands are being made on students in practically all phases of instruction in both high school and college.

As pointed out by the authors of the recent yearbook entitled *Schools for a New World*,¹ schools and colleges now face the challenge of transmitting the most vital elements in our culture so that they become transformed in the process into the kinds of understandings, attitudes, and patterns of thought and behavior that are so greatly needed today. Among the ends to be attained through reading and study, and other aids to learning, are an appreciation of American ideals and traditions, a clarification of future purposes, the establishment of social responsibility, the unification of American life, and the development of a world community motivated by common purposes and aspirations.

THREE PERTINENT CONCLUSIONS

In attempting to realize these objectives, schools and colleges find that students face serious reading problems. Efforts to correct such deficiencies have led to three conclusions which merit emphasis. The first is that the traditional concept of reading is no longer adequate to meet such challenging contemporary needs as those referred to above. Instead of defining reading merely in terms of certain basic habits and skills, it should be recognized as a form of experience and a mode of learning. As such, it involves four basic aspects in addition to word perception. The first is a clear grasp of the literal or sense meaning of a passage. The second is a broader understanding of the author's meaning in the light of his purpose and tone, his use of words, and everything that the reader knows that

aids in recognizing the meaning and implications of a passage. As pointed out by Thorndike long ago, one of the basic causes of breakdown in the reading act is failure to apprehend meaning accurately in this broad sense.

The third basic aspect of reading is critical reaction to the ideas apprehended. As the good reader recognizes the facts and conclusions presented, he reacts critically to them in the light of objective evidence and standards of criticisms. This aspect of reading has broad personal and social implications. It insures a growing body of concepts and ideas, the validity of which have been determined in so far as the reader, is capable. It aids also in the development of attitudes, ideals, and appreciations that are the product of discriminative thinking. Furthermore, it frees the thinking of the reader from domination by the author and enables him to control his own thought processes. Such advantages justify the plea for more rigorous training at every level of general education in critical thinking and the weighing of values while reading. One of the most pointed criticisms voiced today of the reading of high school and college students is that it lacks the critical quality characteristic of a highly competent, self-reliant reader.

The fourth essential aspect of reading involves the application of what is read in the solution of challenging problems, in clarifying thinking, in changing one's outlook on life, and in charting new courses of action with care and discrimination. The application of what is read to the reader's needs and purposes is achieved through the integration into definite thought and action patterns of all the pertinent concepts, facts, and attitudes acquired through reading and other forms of experience. These patterns are used throughout life in guiding overt behavior, in formu-

¹ *Schools for a New World*, Twenty-fifth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, 1947. Pp. 448.

lating, modifying, or defending a point of view, in developing interests, ambitions, and appreciations, and in determining attitudes and behavior in such areas as intergroup and international relations. The student who merely recognizes the facts presented by the author but fails to evaluate them and to make the necessary integration fails to achieve some of the most significant objectives of current instruction in high school and college.

A second conclusion that merits emphasis is that growth in the broader aspects of reading is continuous throughout the period of general education and even later. When the concept of reading was limited largely to the basic habits and skills involved in word recognition, comprehension, speed, and oral reading a large part of the growth, but not all of it, could be achieved by the end of the elementary-school period. Of special significance is the fact that meaning vocabulary, which is more closely associated with power of comprehension than any other factor measured, except intelligence, continues to increase rapidly throughout high school and college years. Furthermore, when the concept of reading is expanded to include depth of interpretation, critical reaction and synthesis in terms of the reader's interests and needs, growth continues throughout the period of general education, and far beyond.

A third conclusion that merits emphasis is that the development of competence in reading is greatly facilitated through the provision of stimulating conditions and guidance adjusted to the needs of students. This fact has been demonstrated repeatedly during the last two decades by the results of carefully planned experiments. We can no longer proceed on the assumption that pupils are taught to read in the elementary school and use reading in-

dependently in learning activities in high schools and colleges. Contrary to earlier views, improvement in many of the simpler phases of reading occurs during high school and college years. All of the interpretative, critical, and integrative aspects of reading continue to improve rapidly throughout the same period. Furthermore, each new learning problem calls for adjustments on the part of readers which can be greatly facilitated through appropriate guidance.

The discussion thus far has recognized the vital character of the instructional problems with which high schools and colleges are concerned today and the challenging intellectual demands made on students. It has shown also that traditional concepts of reading are quite inadequate to meet current needs, that growth in all but the more elementary aspects of reading is continuous throughout the period of general education, and that progress in the more mature aspects of reading is greatly facilitated through appropriate guidance. The obvious implications of these facts is that high schools and colleges face challenging problems in promoting the depth of interpretation, the capacity to react critically, and the power of integration so greatly needed today in achieving the objectives of good teaching.

NATURE AND SCOPE OF AN IMPROVED READING PROGRAM

Early efforts to improve reading in high schools and colleges were limited in scope, pertaining largely to the needs of poor readers. As a result, however, of the increasing demands made on all students during recent years, carefully planned developmental programs have been organized in many high schools, such as those of Denver and Chicago, and in some higher institutions, such as The College of the University of

Chicago and the University of Florida. Critical appraisals of the efforts of these schools and colleges in the light of current needs have led to the conclusions that the following provisions are essential in a reading program adapted to current needs.

1. *A thorough study of the needs and achievements of students in reading at the time of admission.* This is the aspect of a sound reading program most frequently provided by high schools and colleges.¹ Its purpose is to secure at the outset a reasonably clear understanding of reading competence of students so that needed adjustments, if any, can be made in their individual programs. The types of information needed relate to comprehension and speed of silent reading, meaning vocabulary, study skills, reading interests, intelligence level, and scholastic aptitude or success. The agency responsible for collecting data varies widely among schools and colleges. In smaller high schools, individual teachers may be asked to secure the information concerning the students for whom they are most directly responsible. In larger high schools and colleges special bureaus or personnel agencies accumulate the necessary information. Wide use is made of previous records wherever they can be secured. Of large importance is the fact that such records and test data should be available as soon after a student's admission as possible so that they can be used in planning his program. They should also be available at all times to teachers, counsellors, and administrative officers who are responsible for his personal guidance and scholastic progress.

¹ Arthur E. Traxler, "Provision for Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools and Colleges Holding Membership in the Educational Records Bureau," 1945 *Achievement Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies*, pp. 55-66. Educational Records Bulletin, No. 43, 1945.

2. *Special provision for retarded readers.* The data secured in the initial survey of reading attainments and needs will show that from fifteen to thirty, or more, percent of the students who enter high school, and a somewhat smaller percent who enter college are unable to read with reasonable ease and understanding the materials usually assigned. Special help for the retarded reader is the second most frequent provision now made for improving reading in high schools and colleges. The students involved fall generally into two classes. The vast majority are unnecessarily retarded and their chief difficulties can usually be overcome in from one to two semesters of special instruction in reading adapted to their needs. As a rule, they are assigned to special sections under the direction of one or more teachers who are especially competent in developing basic reading attitudes and habits. If these students are not able to enter regular English sections after one or two quarters of remedial training in reading, they continue in special sections bearing such numbers as English II-X and III-X. Some colleges are now considering the wisdom of requiring students who are reading below their mental age expectancy to concentrate for one or two semesters in removing deficiencies in the various language arts before registering in regular college courses.

The second class of retarded readers includes those who are seriously handicapped in reading for reasons that make it impossible to overcome their deficiencies in terms of the usual age or grade standards. These students require not only special help in reading but also radical curriculum adjustments as dictated by their level of mental ability and their capacity to read and study. They should be under the direction of teachers who are specialists in teaching such students. One of

the aims of the instruction provided should be to develop through the help of various aids to learning some understanding and appreciation of the people of other lands and to establish in so far as possible the attitudes on which world citizenship depends.

3. *Systematic training of a developmental type in those understandings, attitudes, and skills that underlie efficient reading in all fields.* As indicated earlier, students continue to progress rapidly during high school and college years in in the more mature aspects of reading if appropriate guidance is provided. In order to economize time and effort the practice has been adopted in some schools and colleges of centering common elements of the training needed in specific courses, such as reading classes, in many junior high schools; English courses which stress all phases of the language arts, as in the Chicago high schools; communications courses, as in Stephens College; humanities courses, as in the College of the University of Chicago; and literature courses, as in the University of Florida. The aim of these courses is to provide systematic training in reading, as other objectives are achieved, which will insure growth in the more mature aspects of reading.

Valid programs of basic training are progressive and move forward in harmony with the dominant interests and developmental needs of students. At the junior high school level boys and girls are keenly interested, among other things, in challenging personal problems, in their adjustments to other people, and in the explanation of the general phenomena of the physical and social world. The development of increased competence in reading during this period includes the sharpening of purposes for reading, learning about available sources of reading material pertinent to given problems, the selection of what is read with discrimination

acquiring greater depth of comprehension and interpretation, greater competence in critical evaluation, and increased capacity to integrate what is read in terms of specific interests and needs.

By the time students enter senior high school they are beginning to acquire interest in somewhat more specialized fields such as history, science, and literature. One of the basic responsibilities of the reading program during the senior high school and junior college period is to develop a clear understanding of the purposes of various types of reading materials and the most effective ways of interpreting them. Furthermore, students should grow rapidly in ability to cope with the technical problems of interpretation inherent in the form, structure, and logic of the materials read. These are aspects of training in reading to which little or no attention has been given in the past.

4. *Sytematic guidance in reading and study habits in the content fields.* The purpose of this requirement is not to detract attention in the least from the major objectives of the respective curriculum fields. It is rather to promote progress in attaining them. As here conceived, the responsibility of content teachers for promoting growth in reading begins when reading is used as an aid in achieving worth while goals. Their first responsibility is to determine the steps essential in achieving the ends sought through reading and to aid students in organizing their efforts accordingly. This point of view was admirably illustrated in a recent article in the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY by Kalp.¹ He maintained that in the problem approach to the study of issues relating to American

¹ Earl S. Kalp, "The Study of American Problems through the Use of the Unit Studies of the North Central Association and Supplementary Materials," NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, XXI (October, 1946), 245-53.

democracy best results are attained when acceptable procedures are discussed with the class and agreed upon. The following were proposed as a guide:

1. What is the problem? State it.
2. Gather and give facts concerning the problem. [Ten different sources were suggested.]
3. Examine information critically. [Desirable and undesirable practices were reviewed.]
4. List the possible solutions to the problem along with the advantages and disadvantages of each situation.
5. Decide tentatively which solution best measures up to democratic values. This means that each student will need to define what he means by democracy.
6. Ask the question—what can be done about this problem here and now? In the future? What social action is suitable and desirable for high school students? For adult citizens?

As one type of procedure after another is presented in a given field, responsibility should be imposed on students to plan appropriate reading and study procedures. Through critical discussion of the proposals made, students should be aided in identifying weaknesses in their own reading and study activities and in making desirable changes.

A second major function of content teachers in promoting growth in reading arises from the fact that each field taught has its own vocabulary, pattern of organization, relationships, logic, and basic principles. Furthermore, the kinds of problems studied and the rationale in solving them differ radically from those of other fields. It follows that the training in reading given in one field cannot develop all the understandings and skills essential to competency in reading in other fields. The only solution discovered thus far

is for the teachers of each field to assume full responsibility for developing in students a high level of competence in essential reading activities.

5. *Effective plans for cultivating personal reading among students and for elevating reading tastes.* A final measure of the effectiveness of any reading program is the amount and character of the personal reading in which young people and adults engage. Objective studies show that the high school and college period is a critical one in this respect. Because of many competing interests, students have a tendency to discontinue the habit of reading regularly for enjoyment and stimulation which was cultivated during the grades. Furthermore, tastes in reading often fail to develop in harmony with the increasing maturity of students in other respects. Experiments conducted in both high schools and colleges show conclusively that this need not be the case. Through appropriate stimulus in classrooms and libraries, young people will continue reading regularly during leisure hours, and through tactful guidance their tastes can be graded steadily upwards. Many schools and colleges have found it extremely valuable to organize special committees which are charged with the responsibility of continuous studies of the reading interests and tastes of students and of formulating and implementing plans for their improvement among all students. One of the objectives of such efforts is wide reading on the part of each student concerning those issues that underlie effective local, national, and world citizenship.

PROMOTING WORLD CITIZENSHIP THROUGH THE USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS¹

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MUCH of what I read and hear about world citizenship seems to me to be sentimental, unrealistic, and bound to lead to disillusionment. There is no cause to question the fine and honorable intentions of those who promote world citizenship, but too often their argument seems to run like this: We *must* become world citizens in order to survive, therefore we *can* become world citizens—by Friday. Most of us are, at best, indifferent citizens in our own communities, states, and nation. This is a fact supported by much more than police court records. The present mayoralty campaign in Chicago has interesting and discouraging implication for the quality of the citizenship of some three-and-a-half million people living in this immediate area. For us to believe that we can become good world citizens, no matter how defined, before we have learned more of the difficult lessons involved in being good local citizens is fantastic. We must learn much more arithmetic before we tackle calculus.

Frankly, I am not certain what world citizenship means. Most of the people who use the expression do not take pains to describe what they have in mind, or how a world citizen should act. Citizenship is, of course, a political term. World citizenship implies, at least, the existence of a world state, and there is none. There may not be for a long time. The United Nations is the beginning of a world organization, but it is far from a world state of which

men and women can become citizens.

It is altogether likely that any person who tries today to act like a world citizen would land in jail, no matter the country he lived in. I doubt seriously that anyone with world citizenship convictions could in good conscience become a citizen of the United States. The oaths he would be required to take to acquire the latter status are decidedly nationalistic. If this is the case, boys and girls who are being taught about world citizenship should know it. We have dealt in fantasy for too long a time in many areas of our social studies.

Because I frankly do not know what a world citizen is, or how he should act in general or in particular, I shall limit my remarks to the use of audio-visual instructional materials, especially motion pictures, in teaching boys and girls how better to *understand* other people, other groups, other nations. If anything like a world order or a world state comes about, it probably will come about because people have learned how better to understand other people. If through power politics and wide spread propaganda a world state comes into being *before* there is adequate understanding among peoples, the world order will in all likelihood fail. And it may be a bloody failure.

The present scheme for a world organization certainly is being pushed around a great deal despite Mr. Truman's declaration of yesterday of his unshaken faith in the United Nations. Our recent action with respect to Greece and Turkey is, of course, unilateral and nationalistic. The basic reason why the United Nations seems

¹ Read at Chicago, March 26, 1947. This paper is related to the general theme, "Promoting World Citizenship in School and College."

ineffective in any situation which certain powerful nations believe to be critical is that people do not yet understand one another sufficiently well to make them willing to allocate responsibilities and decisions to a world political organization.

It seems to me to be important to make a distinction between understanding among peoples and affection or respect among peoples. Much of the literature on international understanding implies that if People A understand People B, it follows that People A will like People B. This, every thoughtful person knows, is not true. Frequently the more you know about another individual or about another group the less disposed you are to like that individual or group.

My conviction is that as educators we will have to let the likes and dislikes fall where they may. Our obligation is to provide boys and girls with an opportunity to learn as much about other people as they can. We want, for example, to enable school children to learn what the people in various South American countries are like. And by that I mean what they really are like. We want to do the same with respect to the Russians, the Danes, the English, the Chinese, and the Turks.

Whether or not this increased understanding leads to liking and affection depends upon many factors. Much international and intergroup discord, however, is now based upon widely circulated and believed fairy tales and stereotypes about other people. These fairy tales are taught in the literature, and folk stories, and school textbooks of every nation. A recent and interesting summary of many of these false teachings is brought together in a book, *Dictionary of International Slurs*, by A. A. Roback. One of the UNESCO projects is to determine the extent to which stereotypes are perpetuated in

textbooks all over the world. Many in this audience can remember their own experience learning things that were false about other groups through what was read in textbooks and talked about in school. I learned, for example, that Spaniards and Turks are cruel, Russians stolid, Negroes dull, Jews grasping, and Mexicans forever taking siestas or having fiestas.

Should we be able through good education to eliminate many of these false beliefs, I have confidence that the accord among nations will at least increase. I am equally confident that certain causes for conflict and disharmony will remain, people being what they are. One reason for my confidence in the value of audio-visual instructional materials for bringing about better understanding among groups is the fact that such materials *can be* very realistic. Probably the best way to reach a better understanding of the way the Russians live, and why, would be to spend a period of time living in Russia, free from government interference, and with a good teacher and some good books. Merely living in Russia might not result in much understanding. But if there were a good teacher around who could help the student generalize from his experience, increased understanding would result. It should be recognized at the outset that it is not easy to understand another people. The culture or Russia is diverse and complicated, as is ours. Three weeks would not be enough time, although many books explaining the Russians have been written and sold widely on the basis of a three-week spring, under government auspices, from Moscow to Vladivostok.

This suggestion of a valid way to learn about the Russians is consistent, everyone will recognize, with what we know about psychology and pedagogy. One of the best methods for urban boys

and girls to learn about life in rural America would be for them to spend a period of time participating in rural American activities with a good teacher and some good books. Actually having the experience means that the words in the books stand for activities, events, and objects, and operations that are real.

It is not possible for very many American boys and girls to live in Russia, or Greece, or Turkey, or England, or even Mexico. A good substitute for living in these countries—and I suspect everyone would grant this—is to watch or study excellently constructed sound motion pictures depicting life and activities in these countries. This is quite a different experience from reading about other people. I do not mean to imply that understanding does not result from reading, but in the degree that our experiences here in America are radically different from the experiences people are having in Russia.

It is impossible for us to learn much about Russian life from words alone. The meaning of the words we read is rooted in our own experience. What we must do through motion pictures and other media is to let pupils have in vicarious form, some of the experiences the Russians are having. Then we can teach with words much more effectively.

The power of audio-visual instructional materials to make a contribution toward intergroup understanding is widely recognized. Last June, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, some eighty-six persons took part in a conference at Washington, "On the Use of Audio-Visual Materials in Creating a Better International Understanding." At the end of the conference, the group recommended that UNESCO serve as a clearing house to provide information about

the audio-visual materials that were available and could be used to improve intergroup relations. It was recommended furthermore that UNESCO arrange for the production of materials, and for their evaluation and distribution.

Speaking for the moment of instructional motion pictures alone, there is a large number, certainly several hundred titles, that could be used for one purpose or another in connection with teaching American children about other people. If you are interested in learning something about these films look at the *Educational Film Guide*, published by the H.W. Wilson Company, New York, each year. The June, 1946, edition classified about four thousand titles according to the Dewey Decimal Classification System. Every country has a reference number, and the instructional motion pictures, good, bad, and indifferent, depicting life in that country are listed and briefly described.

Illustrative of some of these instructional films are: "Of These Our People" (a Horizon Films presentation advertised as a moving documentary record of the Jew in America), "Man, One Family," and "Forward All Together." A list of almost four hundred titles on the United Nations is described in a bulletin distributed by the United Nations Information Office. A number of publications have been prepared which contain extensive bibliographies of audio-visual materials designed to bring about intercultural understanding. One of them is called "Aids in the Teaching of Intercultural Understanding," and is published by the Connecticut Interracial Commission, Hartford, Connecticut. In 1945 the New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, published a ten-page single-spaced mimeographed bulletin entitled "The People of America."

This bulletin includes a description of many kinds of instructional materials that might help different groups in America to understand one another better.

There is in New York City an organization called "Films of the Nations, Inc." which is sponsored by agencies of foreign countries and produces and distributes films about them. The "Free World Association," of Hollywood, California, has published a thirty-page printed bulletin of motion pictures about the United States and other nations. Mr. John E. Dugan conducts a monthly column in *The Educational Screen* in which he describes and evaluates audio-visual materials that have to do with international understanding. In September, 1946, the National Education Association published a bulletin, *Aids to Teaching about the United Nations*, which described a variety of materials that might be used to this end.

Many of the instructional films that have been produced to increase inter-group or international understanding are, in my judgement, insidious and unethical because they are not authentic. Too often they represent this practice: Some individual, with money, or a small group, with money, decides in advance what attitudes boys and girls or adults should have toward a certain group or nation. Sometimes the decision is that the attitude should be favorable; sometimes the decision is that the attitude should be hostile. Having made this decision, the motion picture producer proceeds to make a film that literally forces those people who look at it to accept the same point of view toward the group or the nation that the motion picture producer wanted accepted. This is, of course, the method of propaganda. It implies a distrust in the wisdom of people, and confidence in the ability of small groups

to determine what it is everyone else ought to believe.

The motion picture is admittedly a powerful medium of communication. It is just as powerful in achieving bad ends as in achieving good ends. Most of us are disposed to believe what we see in print. We are even more strongly disposed to believe what we see in the motion picture, especially if we recognize that it has the characteristics of the documentary or teaching film. We feel that what is photographed must have happened. As a matter of fact, most motion pictures dealing with life in foreign countries do depict actual happenings. The difficulty is that things happen here and there in *any* country which, if assembled in a motion picture, can give an entirely erroneous impression of that country. There may, for example, actually be two well trained doctors who try to reach and serve the thousands of natives on the Congo River and its branches by operating small power launches carrying medical supplies. The existence of the two boats and two doctors is an actual fact. A motion picture, however, which describes the activities of these doctors and does not say that there are two of them for some fifteen thousand miles of navigable river is teaching entirely false and erroneous ideas about the medical attention given natives of the Congo by the Belgian government. I hasten to say that I have not seen a picture on this subject. I cite an imaginary case for illustrative purposes only.

Similarly, during the depression in America there were large groups of men and women who were standing day after day in long lines waiting for food. A motion picture which captured this dramatic and terrible event would, of course, be recording the truth. This film, however, might be edited and shown in foreign countries in such a

fashion as to give a completely erroneous idea of what was happening in the United States.

It is, of course, exceedingly difficult in ten, twenty, thirty, or even a hundred and twenty minutes to show a motion picture that is balanced and authentic and does leave in the mind of the viewer a fairly adequate picture of life in another country as it actually is lived. The fact that this is a most difficult task does not mean, however, that it should not be attempted. The alternatives imply that everyone with enough money to make a motion picture can decide what it is he wants people to believe about another group or another country, and then include in the motion picture real but unrepresentative episodes that force the acceptance of a pre-determined attitude.

I should like to conclude by reiterating two statements that I have already made. The first is that there is available a large quantity of audio-visual instructional materials, especially sound motion pictures, that can be used to teach boys and girls better to understand other national and social groups. These materials are, with increasing frequency, being described in bulletins, pamphlets, books, and other publications to help teachers.

A second generalization that I wish to repeat is that too much of this material is propagandistic, deceitful,

and, in my judgment, unethical. Those teachers who are interested in having boys and girls reach a valid and realistic understanding of other people will have to choose the materials they use carefully or will find it necessary to correct many misunderstandings. Few teachers, themselves, know enough about other countries to do this latter effectively. They too are the victims of propaganda. It undoubtedly is true that some teachers can use unauthentic films about other countries to teach boys and girls more about propaganda and the techniques that should be employed to identify it. We have found at the University of Chicago—and our experience is not unique—that boys and girls of the seventh and eighth grades can, in a relatively short period of time, be taught criteria for judging the propagandistic quality of motion pictures.

The crucial issue, as I see it, in connection with all of our attempts—and some of them seem to be quite frantic—to bring about better intergroup understanding is whether the better understanding should be based upon fact and authentic information and a balanced presentation, or upon a partial, biased view. Almost no individual or group advocates the second basis overtly. The materials produced, however, again and again imply that this second approach was adopted.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

Subcommittee on Guidance of the Committee on Fundamentals¹

SECONDARY education in part consists of the modification and improvement of the behavior patterns of youth. In his educational program, each high school student should have ample opportunity to discover his potential abilities, aptitudes, and capacities. The development of such attributes should be in terms of whatever desirable needs and interests each one may possess or acquire, as well as in terms of those which are compatible with society as a whole. The resulting growth and development should help each individual to adjust himself satisfactorily to the sphere of his activity.

To achieve these goals the high schools should make available those services that will provide competent guidance in order that each one may make wise decisions in terms of his physical, mental, social, civic, educational, and vocational needs. Members of the faculty must assume their share of responsibilities by understanding their role in the guidance and counseling program. All guidance activities and services within any one high school should be properly coordinated; personnel trained or experienced in guidance techniques and procedures should be assigned this specific task. In all instances, however, the high school administrator has the over-all responsibility for the guidance and counseling program.

¹ J. Fred Murphy, Director of Counseling Services, Indianapolis Public Schools, *Chairman*; J. G. Bryan, Director of Secondary Education, Kansas City, Missouri; Clifford Erickson, Director of Guidance and Counseling Institute, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan; M. W. Stout, Principal, Rochester High School, Rochester, Minnesota.

With these viewpoints evident, the Subcommittee on Guidance, of the Committee on Fundamentals of the North Central Association, has studied and developed these materials which reflect a two-fold purpose:

1. To present certain basic principles and ideas concerning a high school guidance and counseling program.
2. To consider the major characteristics of a guidance and counseling program from the standpoint of (a) those which may be classified as essential, and (b) those which may be indicative of an extended program.

An appropriate check list has been prepared as a summary. No attempt has been made to formulate or design one pattern which would fit all high schools. High schools should develop those suggested characteristics of the guidance and counseling program which will meet local and pupil needs. To make progress from its existent program toward an extended or optimum one should be the aim of each high school. Flexibility in guidance activities and services is imperative.

THE ROLE OF GUIDANCE SERVICES

Trends Point Need for Guidance Services.—Guidance services are rapidly emerging as essential parts of all education. This trend is evidenced by the increasing number of high schools initiating guidance programs, by the enlarging volume of literature in the field, by the increasing attention given to the training of counselors, by the extension of state and federal participation in assisting the development of programs, by the increase in the number of commercial agencies offering counseling services, by a rapidly developing paren-

tal desire for guidance services and by many other equally significant trends. The provision of an adequate guidance and counseling program is rapidly becoming a "must" for all secondary schools.

These developments are a result of many contributing causes. As the curriculum has expanded, the need for careful pupil planning becomes more evident. As the adult culture becomes more and more complex, the pupil's need for more information and assistance becomes evident. As the school begins to individualize its activities, more and more information about pupils is needed. As the school program attempts to become more realistic, it is necessary to know more about pupils and the situations they now face and will face in the future. As we study the needs and problems of pupils we find an over-abundance of unsolved conflicts and difficulties. As we attempt to help teachers, we find that they need to know more about the pupils, and more skilful techniques for working with these pupils. As we develop more cooperative relations with business, industry, colleges, educational institutions, parents, and community agencies we learn how forcefully a guidance and counseling program can contribute to these cooperative arrangements. The development of counseling services in many other agencies and organizations have spurred the interest of school people. The cumulative effect of many developments has resulted in much interest by secondary schools in the improvement of their guidance services.

Confusing Terminology.—There has been a great deal of confusion and disagreement regarding many of the terms employed in various parts of the guidance and counseling program. Some of this discussion has arisen from divergent points of view regarding

the role of the teacher as contrasted with the functions of the counselor. There now seems to be developing some agreement regarding these varying points of view and the terms used to describe them.

The *guidance and counseling program* is now regarded as including all of the guidance services or activities. *Counseling* is considered a person-to-person relationship. *Interviewing* is one of the techniques used in counseling. *Placement* includes those activities which assist a pupil into his next experiences. *Follow-up* is considered as a survey or evaluation of past experiences plus a present service which is available. Attempts to distinguish between vocational guidance, educational guidance, recreational guidance, social guidance, et cetera, are rapidly passing. More attention is being concentrated on the policy of helping pupils with their problems and plans.

Importance of Teachers.—The concept of teaching is also being extended to include all of the activities and assistance given by teachers. As a result of this emerging concept, teachers as teachers render many guidance services to pupils. No other position is tenable since the core responsibility of teachers is to help youth develop. Any attempt to limit their responsibilities in this area would impoverish their teaching and negate any attempts to build an effective guidance and counseling program. Therefore, teachers play an essential role in the guidance and counseling program. They play this role because they are teachers and not because added titles or responsibilities are given to them. Teachers must help pupils as much as possible. The guidance program must be seriously concerned with those factors which handicap teachers and must always be alert to ways by which teachers can be

helped to become more effective teachers.

Importance of Counselors.—Counselors should not be appointed to relieve teachers of these normal responsibilities. They should not limit the help to pupils provided by teachers. Rather, they should attempt to supplement the work of the teacher and attempt to raise the level of teacher effectiveness. The task of helping pupils solve their problems and perfect their plans cannot be done by teachers or counselors alone. Together they can move towards this goal more rapidly. The job of counseling is just as distinctive and requires as much skill and training as the job of producing a fine musical production or developing an effective athletic team. A modern educational program requires, therefore, some staff members who can make their greatest contribution through counseling with pupils as their assigned responsibility.

Some Basic Principles.—The guidance and counseling program requires the cooperation and participation of the entire school staff. No amount of specialized training on the part of a few staff members will overcome hostility and refusal to contribute by the rest of the staff. Therefore, the administration has the responsibility of initiating guidance practices against a backdrop of "whole staff" understanding and approval. It is not expected that every teacher will or should be a competent assigned counselor. But it is essential that every staff member develops:

1. An appreciation of the functions and practices of the entire guidance and counseling program.
2. An appreciation of their contribution to the program.
3. An understanding of the assistance they might expect from the program.
4. An understanding of and a desire to support the work of the assigned counselors.

Although the school has the responsibility for providing adequate guidance services, not all of the facilities needed for adequately meeting this responsibility are available in the school. Many of the best resources can be found in the community. It is essential that the guidance program be organized in terms of two community relationships.

1. To utilize the many resources available in the community.
2. To make the services of the guidance and counseling program available to all residents of the community.

Although each secondary school must formulate its guidance and counseling program in terms of its own resources, the characteristics of its students, the objectives of the school, the traditions of the school and other local conditions; there are certain factors which direct the development of the program in all schools.

FACTORS WHICH DIRECT THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

All Pupils Need Help.—The guidance and counseling program operates on the theory that every pupil needs help in striving for maximum personal development in accordance with intelligently developed personal plans. All pupils need assistance:

1. In solving personal problems.
2. In understanding themselves.
3. In learning more about the conditions they will meet in the future.
4. In learning desirable procedures for solving their own difficulties.

The guidance services should be available to all pupils at the times when they can be given the greatest amount of help. These services should not be restricted to the problem cases, the academically superior or the pupils planning college careers.

Adequate Data Are Essential.—The process of collecting information about

pupils and using that information as a part of the teaching and counseling activities of the high school represents an indispensable part of the guidance and counseling program. In the absence of such data, teaching and counseling must necessarily be seriously limited in effectiveness. Any school interested in developing guidance activities needs to analyze the adequacy and the accuracy of its data about the student.

Another kind of information involves an understanding of many areas not usually covered in the school's curriculum. This type of information is illustrated:

1. By occupational characteristics of the community.
2. By major occupational trends.
3. By data about colleges and universities.
4. By information about training opportunities.
5. By personal and social characteristics needed for success.
6. By information about the skills needed to secure and to advance on a job.

The Guidance Program Stresses Self-Development.—The guidance program attempts to encourage the development of maximum self-guidance. The function of the guidance program is not to regiment, not to make decisions for individuals. Rather, it is to help pupils evaluate their assets and liabilities, their characteristics and opportunities, their plans and alternatives. Each pupil should become more able to make his own decisions and plans. There should be a minimum of "suggested" plans given to pupils. At all times emphasis is placed on helping pupils learn the process of effective problem solving.

Counseling: the Heart of the Program.—The counseling process represents the heart of the entire guidance program. If individuals are unique and different, their characteristics are so varied that they must be helped in an individual relationship. Each person must be helped to match his

characteristics with his environment and his future opportunities. Although much information and insight can be developed in group situations, the final decisions can be determined only through individual conferences.

Many of the problems of pupils are highly personal in nature and they require private and individualized consideration. As a result, every pupil is entitled to this type of personalized counseling. No school can develop an adequate guidance and counseling program unless provision is made for ample and competent counseling time.

The Guidance and Counseling Program Serves the Staff.—The guidance and counseling program has an important contribution to make to the entire school. It can make information about pupils available to all who work with them. It can furnish information about the occupational characteristics of the community, many other kinds of educational and occupational information can be provided also, resources in the community interested in youth can be identified and this information made available to the staff.

Teachers are also interested in improving their techniques of dealing with pupils. Guidance activities can add greatly to this phase of in-service training. By making available a personal consultation service the guidance and counseling can help each teacher deal with those problems of greatest concern to him. The staff needs help:

1. In developing better testing procedures.
2. In learning more about interviewing.
3. In devising better ways of working with parents.

There is still another important area of staff service. Through the placement and follow-up procedures a great deal is learned about the effectiveness of the school's program. In many ways guidance activities can help the entire staff evaluate its work

and collect suggestions for school improvement.

The Community Participates.—The development of a comprehensive guidance and counseling program necessitates community-wide participation. Many of the special services will have to be provided by the community. Many services will be jointly sponsored. The school needs to acquaint the staff and the pupils with these many community resources.

The school has an opportunity for community service by making its counseling activities available to members of the community. The school plant is being used increasingly to serve the whole community. Out-of-school youth and adults are looking to the schools for counseling help. This represents an area of great potential service.

MAJOR ASPECTS OF A GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

The materials to follow will discuss in detail the more important parts of an over-all guidance and counseling program. It will not be possible to include all of the detailed considerations which a complete study would need to encompass.

A Careful Study of the Individual.—One of the most important contributions of the guidance and counseling program is its emphasis upon a comprehensive, cumulative, and accurate study of individual pupils. No counseling or teaching program can succeed unless it is based on such information about the pupils to be helped. Any attempt to individualize teaching or counseling requires these data. Without it the school's program is limited in the extent to which the needs of individual pupils are met.

These data are used in many ways.

1. Teachers can greatly increase their effectiveness.

2. Pupils can be helped to learn more about themselves.
3. Parents can be more accurately and effectively brought into a cooperating relationship.
4. The school's relationship with other agencies can be placed on a more secure footing.

Organization Is Necessary.—A good guidance and counseling program does not come into being without careful planning and skilful administrative leadership. Careless planning and inadequate leadership have prevented many hopeful ventures from maturing into useful services. The principal, superintendent, or some other administrative staff member must carry the responsibility for the development of the program. He also has the task of selecting and generating leadership on the part of many members of the school's staff.

Adequate planning must involve participation in planning by the entire staff. Even though all members of the faculty will not be equally active in the eventual guidance program, it is essential that all of them understand and accept its importance, visualize the role of the assigned counselors, see how they can contribute to the program, and interest themselves in ways in which they can more adequately help pupils in their daily activities. If this point of view is to be developed, energetic and intelligent administrative leadership is essential.

Another responsibility faces the administrator. If teachers are to be encouraged to enter into new responsibilities, they will need help. If the assigned counselors are to do their task successfully, they too will need additional training. Although many agencies are available for helping educational workers, the administration still faces the problem of developing a program of in-service training. The eventual success or failure of the guidance activities and services may rest .

on the adequacy of their on-the-job learning.

Counseling.—Counseling is the "heart" of the guidance and counseling program. It is the process of helping the individual learn how to solve his problems and improve his planning. All other aspects of the guidance program are contributory to this end. The information collected about pupils is of little value until it is used in helping them. The major outcome of working with teachers should result in better help for pupils. The resources of the home and of the community are mobilized to assist pupils. No guidance program can operate successfully until adequate attention is given to the places of counseling.

It is necessary, therefore:

1. That the counseling be carried on by competent people.
2. That facilities of time, space and materials be provided.
3. That all staff members consider their responsibilities to help make their counseling effective.

In many schools it is necessary that the assigned counseling be carried on by people specifically chosen for this responsibility. In too many schools the counseling job has been given to all and has resulted in inadequate, ineffective, unorganized, and conflicting help to pupils.

The Teacher's Place in the Guidance and Counseling Program.—Mention has already been made of the important place the teacher occupies in the guidance and counseling program. This point of view is of paramount importance. At least four aspects of this problem merit consideration here.

The teaching staff has the most intensive, extensive, and adequate contacts with pupils. Because of their classroom relationships with pupils they have many opportunities to learn about, to help, and to influence the behavior of pupils. The extent to which

they are interested in helping pupils and capable of using that interest determines the amount of help that pupils will receive. It is most important, therefore, that teachers be encouraged to consider their challenging opportunities to help youngsters.

The teacher contributes to the program in another very important way. Much of the information needed by pupils to solve their problems and improve their plans can be provided in group situations. The teacher can provide most of this basic information. Each subject offers many opportunities to provide this type of guidance material.

The guidance and counseling program should strive to be helpful to teachers. Every effort should be made to raise the level of teacher competence in helping pupils. Counselors should spend some of their time working with teachers. Many of the services of the guidance program should be directed towards this type of in-service stimulation of the teaching staff.

The Importance of Research.—Another factor to be considered relates to the research functions of the guidance and counseling program. Studies should be made (a) of the needs and characteristics of the pupils, (b) of their plans for the future, (c) of the experience patterns of pupils leaving the school, and (d) many other such areas of study. This research should be funneled back to the entire staff so that the whole staff might consider methods for improving the school's services. The guidance services have unique opportunities to provide the basic data needed to implement reorganization. In this way the guidance and counseling program can constantly assist in gathering the data needed by the staff to be used by the staff in improving its work.

The Community Contributes.—In the

final analysis, the guidance and counseling program is a responsibility of the entire community. Unless parents are active participants and unless community agencies make their contributions, the whole program will be sterile. No school can successfully supplant the home and the community in providing for the needs of the pupils. It is essential, therefore, that a community-wide approach be used in planning the program. An inventory of existing and needed community resources needs to be made. This information should be supplied all members of the staff. Consideration should be given to the whole problem of working with parents. Attention should also be focused on the opportunity for providing counseling services to community adults and out-of-school youth.

Placement and Follow-up Services.—Another major aspect of the guidance and counseling program involves the placement and follow-up services provided pupils. An educational experience is not completed until individuals have been helped into their next experiences. As a result, more attention is now being given to the placement responsibilities of the school. This service includes:

1. The orientation program.
2. Providing information about the curriculum.
3. The job placement office.
4. The assistance given in selecting proper work experiences and many similar services.

The school is also concerned with a follow-up of former pupils. This activity has two purposes:

1. To secure from former students reactions and suggestions relating to possible ways to improve the school's offering.
2. To provide needed services to pupils after they leave the school.

A follow-up program can provide an effective measure of the effectiveness of the school's work.

There have been many movements

(testing, mental health, placement, work experience, elective curriculum, vocational training, et cetera) which have contributed to the guidance and counseling program. Many schools are becoming interested in developing more adequate guidance services. All parts of the school system are included. All phases of the school program contribute. All staff members have a part to play. The need for carefully organizing has been evidenced by many failing programs in the past. The importance of providing competent counseling to all pupils is being more widely recognized.

INFORMATION ABOUT PUPILS

In theory, if not always in practice, the pupil is at the center of the entire educational process, and concern for his proper development determines all practices of organization, administration and instruction. Whether custodian, teacher, principal, or school superintendent each one functions in terms of his contributions to the proper growth and development of the pupil. Certainly in a satisfactory program of guidance and counseling, all activity revolves around the pupil as a center. Any organization which may be developed, any personnel which may be employed, any machinery of operation which may be instituted, and any devices which may be originated to carry on a program of guidance and counseling can be justified only if the welfare of pupils in the school is the prime consideration in their installation.

The Importance of Understanding the Pupil.—A thorough understanding of the pupil is absolutely basic to a sound program of guidance and counseling. It is difficult to conceive any phase of a pupil's being which could be considered irrelevant in this consideration. A complete listing of all relevant data which would contribute to a

thorough understanding would be, indeed, a lengthy one and no school, perhaps, could be expected to provide an all-inclusive listing. Day by day the pupil changes and each change needs to be understood because of its potential bearing upon the future growth and development of the pupil.

Scientists who are devoting their energies to the improvement of plant and animal life realize the need for as complete understanding of the plants and animals which they are attempting to improve as it is possible for them to secure through any means at their disposal. Similarly, artisans in many fields realize that minute knowledge of the characteristics of materials with which they work is fundamental to success in securing desired outcomes. It is infinitely more significant that artisans who work with the intricate composition of the human being should understand the individuals with whom they labor.

The human being, the life and material with which the schools are working, is more complicated than plants, or animals, or inorganic materials; is definitely changeable; and is made of certain intangible characteristics. All of these facts make the complete understanding of individuals very difficult. However, difficulty of understanding does not obviate the necessity for it, and the consequences of failure to secure it are so great as to challenge the best efforts of all school people to secure it despite difficulties. Realizing that, at best, we can know only a part of the total needed for perfect understanding of each individual pupil, we, in justice, can do no less than utilize every device at our command to approach it.

Productive Devices Evolve.—In these times when the complications of life are pressing the demand for guidance and counseling of youth, we have the

benefit of much research and experience from the past. Our task is one of ferreting out and putting into practice with increasing numbers of pupils the best that has been developed for us. This does not mean that the most productive devices have been evolved. It is altogether probable that newer and better ways will be forthcoming as we devote ourselves earnestly to the task of understanding youth more completely.

Modern schools generally are committed to the responsibility of developing the *whole* child. This commitment carries with it the responsibility for understanding the *elements* entering into the composition of the whole child, and the interrelations of these elements in the educational process. The aims and objectives of a school's program are reflected in the school's understanding of these elements and the utilization of them in the educational program. Conversely, a clear-cut comprehensive statement of aims or objectives should be helpful in finding and classifying the several elements which are regarded as constituting the whole child, in so far as they are influenced by the school's activities.

Pertinent Pupil Data Necessary.—Identifying data are, of course, a necessary part of the information essential in a program of guidance and counseling. Included therewith are such items as full name, nickname, address, sex, birth date, birthplace, and names of parents or guardians. Of greater significance are those data which reveal the individual as such. A minimum list of such essential items of information includes physical data, scholastic ability, evidences of aptitudes other than scholastic, vocational and other interests, personality and social growth, family data, pupil background data, educational and vocational plans, activities, and work experience.

Beyond these minimum essentials additional information is desirable; such as, school subject likes and dislikes, other likes and dislikes, travel experience, unusual environmental factors, unusual experiences, and any other which exerts an influence upon present progress and future plans.

Minimum essential information, in brief, needed about each student follows:

1. Health and physical data—health history; medical and dental data; special impairments; and general information about physical characteristics, appearance, health habits, and student's attitude towards health and physical condition.
2. Scholastic tests and records—test results of general mental ability, special aptitudes, and interests; records of academic achievement and progress towards goals, such as good work habits, creative thinking, appreciations, et cetera.
3. Evidences of aptitudes other than scholastic—such as are revealed by unusual classroom performance, by participation in activities, by work outside of school, by relations with other people, or in other ways.
4. Interests, vocational and others—some of these revealed by tests; others through hobbies, use of leisure time, participation in activities, success in class, work experience, et cetera.
5. Social growth and personality—relations with teachers, fellow students and others; membership and role in organized or unorganized groups; school and community citizenship habits; group adjustments; and such traits as industry, initiative, cooperation, work habits, dependability, and ability to get along with others.
6. Family data—names and occupation of parents or guardians, socio-economic status, cultural background, number of brothers and sisters, home and family conditions and influence, and any other significant factors in the family or home environment.
7. Pupil background data—attendance and punctuality, unusual life incidents, emotional states, special handicaps, prejudices, strong beliefs, etc.
8. Educational and vocational plans—intention to finish high school, intention to pursue higher education, vocational preferences, and alterations in any of these.
9. Activity data—participation in any out-of-class activities whether in school or out of

school, with organized or unorganized groups; role taken in these.

10. Work experience—whether in or out of school, with or without pay; type of work or service performed, length of experience, rate of pay, success, reason for discontinuance.

Different Ways of Securing Pupil Data.—Methods of securing the data which are more commonly used by schools such as identifying data, achievement marks, attendance figures, and mental ability ratings, are fairly well established. Frequently lack of time, or of personnel and equipment, is given as the reason for not securing other data. It is not unlikely, however, that lack of appreciation of their value in guidance and counseling is among the prime reasons why more data are not assembled. Scattered practice indicates ways and means of gathering additional data. Teachers and other staff members, constantly on the alert, can do much. The use of questionnaires, time-distribution sheets, autobiographies, and other reports secured in orientation periods or in regular classes are productive. The use of anecdotal records, visits to homes by classroom or visiting teachers, personal interviews with pupils by special counselors or home room or class room teachers, analyses of the pupils' special home room activities, and other devices have been used to advantage.

Pupil Data Should Be Recorded and Used.—It is important that data, once found, be made a matter of record. Having been placed on record, the information becomes usable for future guidance and counseling. Teachers do forget, and unless significant information is recorded, it may be lost or be unavailable to other staff members to whom it might be most valuable. For the purpose of centralizing and preserving various information about pupils, cumulative record forms are strongly recommended. Such forms in

the nature of an envelope or folder provide conveniently for preserving original copies of information. If cumulative forms are not in use in a given school, then some provision for assembling all the data relating to each pupil and preserving them should be provided.

But the gathering of information about a pupil and the recording and preserving of it are not sufficient. The critical point about all information concerning a pupil is that it be used by his counselor in an attempt to understand him better, and that the pupil also attempt to understand himself better. This necessitates an arrangement whereby information is readily available to the counselor whether this person be an assigned counselor, classroom teacher, home room teacher, or other staff member. Caution must be exercised in the interpretation of test results. Staff members who are skilled in such interpretation can assist others who are less skilled. Intelligence quotients, notes on dishonesty, and records of discipline cases should be treated confidentially. Certainly no information about a pupil should be allowed to fall into the category of that which is "held against" him. Rather, all of it should be regarded as aids to understanding a dynamic, growing, and developing individual.

ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING A GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

The guidance and counseling program of a high school must be so organized and administered that it will:

1. Provide an environment which will enable each pupil to reach his optimum growth.
2. Help each pupil achieve better adjustment with this environment.
3. Prepare each pupil for making certain critical decisions which will confront him during his lifetime.

Coordination of Guidance and Counseling Program Necessary.—The guidance activities and services must be so planned that all the forces of the school shall be brought to bear in a unified and consistent way upon the problems of each pupil. These forces must be unified to the extent that the individual pupil does not become confused by a multiplicity of counselors. The guidance and counseling program must be conducted as systematically as large medical clinics in which the general practitioner refers his patients to specialists. Definite and primary responsibilities for parts of the work must be placed upon certain individuals or agencies. The work must be so divided that each agency knows what its particular duties and responsibilities are, the activities for which it is primarily responsible, and the ways in which it contributes to the work of the other agencies. When these specialists in testing, counseling, and health understand and perform their duties to aid the general practitioner and he in turn utilizes their findings to treat the whole pupil, then the guidance and counseling program will not fail to function because of disorganization.

Simple Organization Desirable.—In the development of a plan for the administration of guidance activities and services it is advisable to keep the organization as simple as possible. The different parts of the plan should grow out of the actual needs of the pupils and their school. Complicated machinery may interfere seriously with the real function of the work, for it sometimes takes so much effort, time, and money to run the machinery itself that the actual guidance of the student may be neglected. This danger can be avoided to a large extent if the machinery is developed only as the need for it arises and discarded as quickly

as that need disappears. It should be remembered that the purpose of the machinery is to help the pupil and that it is a means to an end and not an end in itself.

The guidance practices should be organized:

1. To care for problems that have developed.
2. To prevent unnecessary problems from arising.
3. To help each pupil secure for himself the most productive and positive experiences.

In other words, the guidance practices should be organized *to cure, to prevent, and to enrich*. It should be planned in terms of the needs, interests, abilities, and opportunities of all pupils and all educational levels. It should be concerned with the best development of the total individual. To do this it must be organized so that all pupils experiences are coordinated and related.

Direct versus Indirect Guidance Method.—There are two methods of guiding pupils, the direct method and the indirect method. In the direct method there will be a guidance course set up through which students will be sent for guidance. In this method one attempts to teach guidance as a subject, just as one teaches English and history. The indirect method does not utilize an organized course or program. Instead, it is planned to meet situations as they arise. In reality, then, the indirect method is more direct than the direct method.

Characteristics of a Good Plan of Organization.—Some of the characteristics of a good plan of organization are that:

1. It must be effective.
2. It must be flexible.
3. It must allow many to participate in activities.
4. It must be stimulating to the entire school.
5. It must utilize all of the interest and information of the sponsor.
6. It must avoid an authoritative arrangement.

There is no magic charm connected with any certain administrative organization. What works in one place may not work at all in another. It all depends upon the staff and facilities of a given locality. The development of a plan of guidance and counseling is not too difficult. The adaptability of that plan to a local school, however, will depend upon the ability of the principal to adjust the organization to the needs of the pupil personnel who require guidance services and to the ability of the staff personnel who render those services.

Responsibility of the Principal.—The principal is the responsible head of a school. In this capacity he exercises an important influence both in the performance of guidance duties and in the direction and supervision of the guidance activities of other functionaries. Unless the principal has an educational interest in the guidance and counseling program and a sympathetic understanding of the activities of his assistants, the program will not be successful.

Qualifications of the Guidance Leader.—The principal or the person designated by him to serve as the leader in developing the guidance services should have adequate preparation and other qualifications.

1. His training should include a broad education involving study in the sciences, social studies, art, psychology, mental hygiene, health education, and character education. A master's degree would be desirable.
2. He should have had extensive study of guidance as a factor in the educational program.
3. He should be skilled in the use and interpretation of tests and other methods of evaluation.
4. He should have had successful experience as a classroom teacher over a term of years.
5. Some experience in work other than teaching would be very valuable.
6. He should have an acquaintance with working conditions, requirements, and opportunities in a variety of occupations.

7. He should be acquainted with training opportunities for various occupations and have contacts which result in an acquaintance with local employment opportunities.
8. He should have maturity and general life experience sufficient to assure practical judgment.
9. He should have a thorough understanding of adolescents and the ability to work effectively with them without domination or antagonization.
10. He should have personal character and conduct that inspires and holds the confidence of pupils and his associates in order that he may work effectively with them.

Guidance Duties of a Good Principal.

—Some of the guidance duties which a good principal will perform are:

1. Visiting contributing schools to counsel students and parents regarding admission to high school.
2. Providing guidance with respect to social problems of pupils.
3. Counseling pupils regarding choice of subjects and activities in high school.
4. Counseling pupils regarding the choice of a college, or other educational opportunities.
5. Counseling pupils regarding matters of conduct.
6. Counseling pupils regarding the choice of a vocation.
7. Advising pupils with respect to participation in co-curricular activities.
8. Conferring with individual pupils regarding the development of special abilities.
9. Counseling individual pupils with respect to correcting disabilities.
10. Attempting to secure placements for pupils in need of employment.
11. Undertaking to render "follow-through" and "follow-up" services to pupils and school-leavers.

Disciplinary Action and Guidance May Be Compatible.—The modern principal regards every official relation between himself and his pupils as having potential guidance possibilities. This is true even while he is exercising the functions of a disciplinarian. It has been said that it is difficult for the administrative head of a school to undertake certain types of personal guidance, for his disciplinary duties may prevent the development of proper

attitudes on the part of the pupil. However, there are authorities who severely challenge this statement. While disciplinary action and guidance are not synonymous, neither are they incompatible.

The principal, when he wishes to organize a guidance program, must first establish his own place of responsibility for the services attempted. In the small and middle-sized schools he may undertake to direct as well as to organize the program. In the large school he may delegate the responsibility of direction and supervision to a director of guidance. Under the director there may be other functionaries. If their efforts are to be effective, there must be projected some plan which charts the activities to be performed by each functionary and establishes the administrative relations. Otherwise the influences exerted by the functionaries on the individual pupil and the contribution made to the over-all program will be casual and uncoordinated.

Basic Approaches to Development of Guidance Practices.—There are two basic plans for building a guidance and counseling program. The *first plan* is to procure a trained person or staff and establish a program separate from the organizations of instructional staff and administration. In this situation the principal would place the responsibility upon the director and his assistants. This program has the advantage of definiteness and mechanical efficiency, but in it guidance is separated from both the curricular and the administrative staff, and its functions will be restricted to a few specialists. It may appear to be imposed upon the school and may cause teachers to look on guidance as a separate function. The *second plan* is one in which the guidance program is built out of the school itself with the teachers and the administrative assistants as the build-

ers and the principal as the leader. While this plan does not have the advantage of the definiteness and the mechanical efficiency of the first, it has that of being an integral part of the school. As the program develops it may be advisable to appoint a director.

A guidance and counseling program cannot be separated from the general life of the school and tucked away in the office of a counselor. It is part of the entire school program. It is in every activity of the school, and some phase becomes the duty and responsibility of every teacher in the system. No teacher can dodge this responsibility, for no pupil is the same person when he leaves a class or activity as when he enters. Something has happened to him by way of experience.

Counseling Necessary Regardless of Size of School.—Just who should counsel the individual pupil is less important than that the duty be carried out. In small schools where it is possible for the principal to know each pupil as an individual, and not infrequently the parents of each pupil as well, he may do this himself. However, in larger schools it is impossible for the principal to have this close contact and the counseling service should be assigned to other members of the staff. In many schools the individual counseling is assigned to home room teachers. Some schools appoint specialists who spend their entire time in counseling the individual pupils. Other schools believe that the matter can best be delegated to a number of teachers who are partially relieved of teaching duties. In any of these situations the principal should keep in very close contact with the counseling program because of the way it touches all phases of the curriculum and co-curricular activities. He should remain in the guidance picture if for no other reason than to make the teachers see that guidance is

a part of the school program and just as important as any other department or activity.

Place of Advisory Committee or Council.—In large high schools the principal may wish to organize an advisory committee or council on guidance. The consideration and proposal of policies and practices in directing and controlling the work of guidance should be the responsibility of this body. The work of the members should be advisory rather than administrative. The committee or council should be composed of those teachers who are most interested in the guidance and counseling program and who have had the most experience and training in the work. They should be capable of selling the idea and procedure of guidance to all the teachers in the building. The size of the advisory group should depend upon the size of the school and its offering. The members of the committee should work chiefly with classroom teachers and home room sponsors.

Each and every teacher in the system should be stimulated to teach guidance information that is related to his subject. Each and every subject in the school curriculum should be used as a means to an end. Each subject should contain guidance information of educational, vocational, personal, and social value to the student. The teachers should use their subjects as instruments for teaching boys and girls to become better men and women.

Staff and Student Time Necessary.—In planning the guidance and counseling program the principal must be sure to allow time to both the teachers and the students for these activities. Any planned program may fail if it means that extra duties are added to already overburdened teachers. The daily schedule of classes should be so constructed that a teacher-counselor

has the opportunity to contact students for personal conferences. Guidance can best be given by a teacher-counselor who studies a limited number of pupils individually as to learning capacity, past school record, health record, character, home conditions, social outlook, civic outlook, personal interest, wishes of parents, length of time student will probably remain in school, and certain factors peculiar to the community. No classroom teacher should have a teaching load greater than 125 to 150 pupils per day. There should be the equivalent of a full time counselor for approximately each four to five hundred students in the school. As counseling duties are added to the teacher's load, classroom teaching duties should be lightened.

Classroom Teacher Important.—The classroom teacher plays an important role in guidance and counseling. It is in the classroom that the needs of the pupils for guidance are first revealed. The classroom teacher is usually the first to become aware of the needs of the pupils. While not all good classroom teachers will become good counselors, most of them will become better counselors if given proper in-service training. The development of good teacher-counselors is essential if there is to be a good guidance program.

The teacher-counselor may function as a class sponsor or a home room teacher. In many schools the home room is the key to the entire guidance program. Small schools often do not have home rooms but do have class organizations. Some schools free teachers from class assignments for certain periods during the day and assign to them students who are in the study hall during those periods. Under this plan the teacher-counselor may call all of these students together during that hour for group guidance, or he may take part of the group at a time.

Better still, he may have individual conferences with students whenever he wishes without disturbing other classes. Plans of this type are rapidly gaining favor.

In the larger schools the principal should provide adequate consultation service to assist the teacher-counselor in dealing with special problems of guidance. In addition to having adequate preparation for the duties they are to perform, the special consultant should have a general understanding of the educational program of the school as well as of the characteristics and needs of the pupil population. When these special consultants are provided, there should be a clear understanding between them and the teachers of their mutual responsibility and relationship.

In-service Training Necessary.—The success of a guidance and counseling program depends upon a staff qualified to do the job well. It is not enough that they be interested. Ambitious but untrained and sentimental faculty members may through well-meaning but bungling efforts do more harm than good. Some teachers who are called upon to serve as guidance functionaries are either untrained or at best poorly trained for guidance services. It must be remembered that some of those who are teaching today completed their training before emphasis was placed upon guidance. If some staff members are going to become efficient teacher-counselors, the principal must provide for a program of in-service training.

Utilize Staff Members in Program Appraisal.—To stimulate interest in guidance among his staff a principal may use Section G of the *Evaluative Criteria* prepared by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Many principals have found that the experience of evaluating their own

schools by these criteria has a stimulating effect upon faculty members. When the teaching staff has uncovered the weaknesses of its own school in the field of guidance, the majority of the members wish to do something about it. The strong phases of the program will be strengthened and extended. The principal will then use a variety of techniques to further his in-service training program. For instance,

1. He will continue to develop on the part of all staff members a thorough understanding of the guidance aim for that particular school.
2. He will attempt to develop with the staff as a whole a consistent point of view concerning the nature and scope of guidance.
3. He will provide periodicals, books, tests, and other guidance material in adequate amount for study by the staff.
4. He will encourage the teachers to discover and utilize opportunities for guidance in classroom work and other relations with pupils.
5. He will confer with teachers individually and in small groups as well as in general staff meetings regarding the problems of guidance in the school.
6. He will organize teacher committees for work on special problems such as cumulative records.
7. He will provide for demonstrations of counseling by a teacher or counselor for individuals and groups.
8. He will provide for demonstrations in developing case studies of pupils.
9. He will provide information and experience in testing and in the interpretation of tests.
10. He will arrange for teachers to visit other teachers in the system or in other systems.
11. He will help teachers plan for their further professional study in summer schools.
12. He will attempt to maintain and use any aroused interest in guidance.

Physical Facilities Important.—The efficiency with which the guidance services of the high school function is dependent also upon the physical facilities available. The needs of the pupil population and the community will affect the type and amount of physical facilities necessary and desirable for guidance activities.

There is no one set floor-plan or arrangement for such facilities regardless of the size of the pupil population. The philosophy and practices of the school and the emphasis on individual guidance and counseling will help determine the requirements for (a) room space, (b) location of rooms, (c) file and record space and equipment, (d) clinical facilities, (e) testing rooms and supplies, and (f) a special personnel unit near the administrative offices.

In the small high school the principal or a specially qualified teacher will be responsible for conducting individual interviews. The principal's office should have the necessary (a) privacy, (b) personnel records and (c) files for counseling. In the larger secondary school a special personnel unit near the administrative offices should contribute to a satisfactory counseling program by having readily available personnel records and files and the information and services for adjustment of the educational program. An appropriate personnel unit in the larger school should include, (a) a reception room, (b) a room with tables and chairs for small group discussions or individual reading, (c) small rooms for interviewing, (d) space for portable personnel records and files, (e) files of educational and occupational information, (f) facilities for individually testing, (g) closet space and equipment, and (h) special laboratory furnishings.

Individual interviewing requires that both the counselor and his client be in a position where the environment is conducive to (a) thoughtfulness, (b) exchange of ideas, (c) freedom of expression and (d) constructive planning. Appropriate facilities for the regular and specially assigned staff members who do individual interviewing should be available and accessible.

The school organization should, if possible, render special services to the

pupil who deviates noticeably from the other members of the student body. Pupils presenting serious personal, mental, emotional, and social problems need special psychological or psychiatric services. A clinical organization with qualified personnel and adequate facilities should provide the necessary professional services. Special rooms with a unit for testing, interviewing, counseling, and storing should be included in a desirable plan for meeting the needs of such pupils.

The library should provide appropriate space for exhibits and for the use and circulation of professional books, magazines, and other materials which are necessary for the growth and development of teachers in the guidance and counseling program. The library should provide opportunities for pupils to examine and study publications which relate to educational and occupational information, personality problems, and social adaptations. Attractive display racks, files for materials, and reading facilities should be available to pupils in the library.

The school should have adequate audio-visual materials in the field of guidance. The amount of materials in this area is becoming unlimited. Their potential value in the field of guidance is as yet not realized. There must of course, be facilities for storing such materials and for projecting films, slides and the like.

The success of a guidance program depends in part upon a well-planned and executed research program. A functional research program requires the equipment and supplies for testing, files and filing materials, clerical help, and storage space. It is not enough to tell teachers what to do and have them want to do it. One must give them materials with which to work.

Many schools are now drawing up plans for the renovation of existing

buildings or the construction of new ones. The administrators in these schools must not miss the opportunity to provide the proper physical facilities for their personnel department.

Parents an Important Factor.—The guidance and counseling program should be organized so as to utilize, to supplement, and to enrich the guidance experiences provided by the home, the church, and the community at large. Cooperation with parents is especially necessary to maintain effective guidance and counseling services. The entire program should emphasize the idea that parents and teachers should work together. Parents should be consulted about what they want the school to do for their children and should be informed about the results. Meetings of groups of parents should be held to discuss the progress of pupils and the school. Subjects should be discussed which relate to (a) what the school has to offer, (b) study habits of pupils, and (c) the educational and vocational plans of students. Forums should be held for parents in which questions are asked and answered by a panel of parents and teachers. Bulletins on school regulations and changes in the curriculum and reports on pupil scholarship, health, and social activities should be available to parents. There should be frequent conferences between the parents and the faculty if the guidance program is to succeed.

Utilization of Outside Resources.—Much use should be made of outside cooperating agencies and organizations. Individuals and organizations in the community should be consulted and their cooperation sought in promoting the school's guidance services. In all instances the school will determine, coordinate, and supervise the cooperative guidance activities. Especially should there be close cooperation with the welfare board clinic which provides

physical and mental examinations, hospitalization, and treatment for those who are unable to provide the necessary services for themselves. These agencies and different service clubs are eager to serve youth, and they will gladly cooperate with the school when the need is made evident.

COUNSELING

Counseling, the process of helping people solve their problems and improve their plans, is the central purpose of the entire guidance and counseling program. All other guidance activities are auxiliaries thereto. They help to make effective counseling possible. The school record system, the testing program, the files of educational and occupational information, the occupations courses, the informational activities of all teachers, these and many other school services help to provide a background and the knowledge needed for helpful counseling. Every school needs to appraise and continually attempt to improve its counseling services.

The Need for Counseling.—It is readily accepted that the failing pupil, the delinquent, the physically handicapped, and other kinds of deviates need special help. It is less commonly accepted that nearly all normal pupils have problems and needs of sufficient importance to merit competent assistance. Many studies indicate that problems and difficulties are not restricted to the atypical. Rather, a thorough survey of student problems will reveal their frequency of appearance, their seriousness, and their intensity when they do occur. An adequate counseling service is needed to provide help for all pupils at the appropriate time.

The problems with which counseling is concerned are manifold. School counselors deal with them in harmony with

the purposes of the school, paying special attention to those which are closely related to pupil growth and development. The following array is illustrative. The counselor will help the pupils to:

1. Prepare for the next school or subject.
2. Become oriented to new surroundings.
3. Plan their programs.
4. Make their vocational plans.
5. Learn more about themselves.
6. Adjust their personal problems.
7. Solve problems of school adjustment.
8. Obtain educational, occupational, and personal information.
9. Learn the process of problem solving.
10. Identify and use referral sources.
11. Adjust to home and community situations.
12. Adjust to the next activity beyond high school.

Not all of the foregoing responsibilities are handled by counselors in every school. Many of them are shared with all of the teachers. But all of them, and many others, necessitate competent help, oftentimes on an individual basis.

The Kinds of Counseling.—In recent years a great deal of discussion has centered on the approaches to be used in counseling. Such terms as "directive," "non-directive," "therapeutic," "case study," "clinical", and many others have been used. There are enough common points of view, however, to more than offset those which are divergent. Some of the former are:

1. All counseling is primarily interested in increasing the pupil's self-directiveness.
2. Adequate and accurate information about the counselee is needed by the counselee, the counselor, or both. If these data are not available they should be accumulated.
3. Some types of situations require a high degree of catharsis on the part of the counselee.
4. Counselors should always be alert to the full utilization of faculty and community resources as effective referral agents.
5. An effective counseling service should include all schools of the system.
6. If the counseling program is to be of maximum assistance, it must detect maladjustments early in their development and deal with them at that time.

7. The counselor must be concerned with the results of the process of counseling.
8. All staff members are not equally able or equally interested in counseling. It is necessary, therefore, to select the most competent for the assigned counseling responsibilities.
9. A major outcome of the counseling service should be reflected in increased teacher competence. Counselors should, therefore, have time to work with teachers.

Counseling—For Whom?—In many schools the counseling service has been concentrated on the failing, the seriously maladjusted, the atypical pupils. At best, only a minority of the pupils have received any organized help. As attempts have been made to identify the problems and needs of pupils it has become increasingly clear that nearly all pupils have problems at some time. It is apparent that the large majority can greatly profit from counseling in planning their educational and vocational futures. Many of these pupils have personal problems which need personalized attention.

The counseling program should, therefore, be planned so that all pupils are given that kind of assistance most needed at the most appropriate time. For this objective to be realized it is essential that a sympathetic teaching staff and a competent and adequate counseling group work in harmony.

Counseling—By Whom?—All members of the school's staff engage in some type of counseling if they are seriously concerned with the growth and development of pupils. The work of the teachers will normally and naturally grow out of their classroom contacts. This type of counseling is included as a regular and important part of teaching. It cannot and should not be separated from the process of teaching. All teachers should be encouraged to carry on as much and as effective counseling of this kind as possible. The school's in-service training program should be directed towards a constantly increas-

ing teacher interest and ability in this area. The organization of the school should be re-arranged to increase the teachers' effectiveness. The assigned counselors should be encouraged to be as helpful to teachers as possible. Maximum teacher growth in this area is an essential goal.

Few schools, if any, will find it possible to delegate all counseling responsibilities to teachers. They may find this "extra" assignment is not taken as seriously as some of the teachers' other responsibilities. They may find several of the faculty untrained and uninterested in attaining sufficient counseling competence. They will find that distinctive interest and abilities are needed for successful counseling. They will find it necessary to plan, to define, and to delegate some counseling responsibilities. Because of these and other factors, it is usually necessary for a school to begin a two-pronged approach; namely, to help the entire staff increase its effectiveness in helping pupils, and to select or employ a few people to carry the major load of assigned counseling.

Organizing for Counseling.—Each school will approach its organizational problems somewhat differently. Certain factors, however, need to be considered by all schools:

1. A high level of counseling competence is needed. Therefore, the administrator should select the assigned counselors in such a way that competence is assured. The rapidity with which the program can be developed, the counselor load and other similar aspects hinge upon the number of competent counselors available.
2. The number of counselees per counselor should not be excessive. In general, the fewer the better. As many staff members as possible should be provided if the level of counseling competence can be maintained.
3. Counselees should remain with the same counselor as long as possible.
4. It is usually advisable for all counselors to carry on some teaching activities.

5. Counselors need time, space, and other facilities. Although no final evidence is available as yet, it is probably desirable for each counselor to have a maximum of one hundred counselings for each daily hour of counseling time. Meeting rooms, cumulative folders, testing resources, and files of educational and occupational data are needed.
6. It is decidedly advantageous for counselors to meet with parents.
7. Counselors need an opportunity to work with teachers. A clear recognition of this activity should be provided in all organizational plans.
8. Community and school staff contacts should be made so that an effective program of referral can be used.
9. The counseling service requires the understanding cooperation of the entire staff.
10. An in-service program for the entire staff and another more intensive plan for the assigned counselors will be needed in most schools.

Qualities of the Counselor.—The staff members selected to do the assigned counseling should have certain attributes. Such characteristics as the following will be helpful:

1. A sincere interest in pupils and a real desire to help them.
2. Evidence that a great deal of informal counseling has already been done by the person.
3. A desire to improve self, to secure further training.
4. Excellent working relationships with the rest of the staff.
5. Real skill in interviewing, in test and record utilization.
6. The ability to understand people.
7. A genuine desire to help pupils grow in self-analysis and self-directiveness.

Energetic and intelligent administrative leadership is necessary if these factors are encompassed in the developing counseling program. The entire staff must be helped to see the importance of counseling, the important contributions each can make and the ways by which a coordinated and cooperative program can be built.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Considered from the point of view of its prime objective, guidance and

counseling may be regarded as the essence of the school curriculum and a responsibility of every classroom teacher. Certainly all of the activities of the pupil over which the school exercises direction are instituted and furthered by the school as a means of "guiding" pupils in the process of maximally developing their potentialities. In this process, classroom teachers are in key positions for rendering day-to-day guidance service of a varied nature. Whether they will to be or not, they are counselors of their pupils and in innumerable instances, though these may occur without consciousness of them by the teacher, pupils are "guided" by their teachers. It is not uncommon to hear an older person remark concerning a teacher's dominant influence on the course of his life, though subject matter taught by the teacher long since has been forgotten. This is indeed a compliment to teachers—and a challenge. Unfortunately changes in the course of life for a pupil may not always be for the better. But guidance remains guidance regardless of the direction given to the course of life.

Contributions of the Teacher.—Because teachers are closer to their pupils under normal circumstances than are other staff members and thus can know the pupils better, teachers are in a particularly favorable position to assume certain definite responsibilities in the guidance and counseling program. They can be helpful:

1. In providing data for pupil individual inventories.
2. In imparting occupational information.
3. In pointing out vocational implications of their respective subjects.
4. In stressing and developing desirable work habits and attitudes.
5. In helping to fashion those personality traits which are vital to success in living and in earning a living.
6. In cooperating with the assigned counselor in various guidance and counseling activities.

In the field of personal counseling the teacher, upon occasion, may be better able than any other person to perform this service due to circumstances surrounding the case. Further, the teacher may detect cases for referral to an assigned counselor, which otherwise would not come to the counselor's attention. Always the teacher can be on the alert for behavior patterns or for evidences of interests, aptitudes, plans, or concerns of pupils which should be made known to the assigned counselor. The role which the teacher plays in the guidance and counseling program will be played for better or for worse depending upon a number of factors.

(As indicated earlier, pupils are influenced, sometimes drastically, by their teachers.) A teacher's words, actions, manner, mood, or attitudes—any or all—may be such factors. Furthermore, they may be separating with or without the teacher's knowledge or intention. An important consideration is that teachers realize the potential influence which is theirs as counselors, and that they adequately prepare themselves for, and painstakingly conduct themselves in, the discharge of this critical responsibility. Also, the classroom teacher in the guidance and counseling program will be more effective for good provided that:

1. The philosophy of the school developed, understood and accepted by all staff members, embodies a guidance and counseling point of view.
2. Proper administrative and organizational provisions have been made.
3. Competent leadership is provided.
4. Time has been scheduled appropriately.
5. A cooperative spirit exists between teachers and others who are concerned with the program.
6. The assigned counselors are given time to be helpful to teachers.

Importance of Curricular Offerings and Co-Curricular Activities.—Within a thoughtfully prepared program of

curricular and co-curricular activities, provision may be made for teachers to assume more effectively in classrooms their role in guidance and counseling activities. Courses in careers, vocational information, trade training, practical arts, and others, by their very nature, are designed to give assistance in selecting and preparing for occupations. Certain co-curricular activities, such as photography clubs, stage crews, and dramatic organizations also possess similar potentialities. Health and physical education classes offer many opportunities for guidance and counseling relating to problems of health and the physical condition of pupils. In this field, co-curricular activities—athletics, intramurals, dancing, games, et cetera—are rich with opportunities for helping students develop better physical condition and health. Courses in psychology, human relations, personal and social adjustment, and others deal with significant problems in which pupils have personal interest and from a study of which they may receive very real help in managing their personal and social affairs. Courses in biology, physiology, and hygiene present facts about physical development in adolescence which are helpful to youth in understanding their bodies. This understanding may help them to change undesirable attitudes about themselves. Courses in home economics may deal with matters of grooming, such as use of cosmetics, style of hairdress, cut of clothes, any or all of which may have deep emotional significance to adolescent girls. Literature offers rich opportunities for guidance of youth through the portrayal of spiritual values in life and the development of proper attitudes towards them. Indeed, most if not all high school subjects include some content which, in the hands of skilful teachers, may be utilized advanta-

geously in helping youth find solutions to their problems.

Guidance and Counseling Needed in General Education.—The pattern of curriculum organization has a bearing upon the extent to which teachers are likely to function effectively in the guidance and counseling program. The traditional "subject" pattern does not exclude all possibilities, as has been indicated. Newer patterns, however, offer much more promise of promoting guidance and counseling as a vital and integral part of the instructional program. In schools where the philosophy of general education has influenced curriculum patterns, resulting in a "core," "common learnings," or similar programs, much that previously had been isolated as guidance and counseling has become an integral part of classroom activity. A highly desirable feature of such patterns is the provision that each teacher contacts a small number of pupils each day and works with them for a longer period of time. In such an arrangement the teacher has greater opportunity to come to know each pupil intimately and thus to function more intelligently in advising and directing him.

A second desirable feature of such patterns lies in the fact that content tends to be developed around areas of living, or around problems, and is selected in terms of its vital relationship to the process of developing youth. In such programs home rooms cease to exist and the questionable guidance and counseling materials which were formerly utilized in the brief home room periods become an essential portion of the new teaching material. Such programs hold promise for giving more and more guidance and counseling to more and more pupils, by teachers who know their pupils better. Pupils can be aided in planning and developing their programs of needed specialization.

The utilization of community resources in classroom teaching enhances the opportunity for more effective guidance and counseling. Many of the pupils' interests, concerns, and problems are outcomes of influences in their community. A thorough knowledge of the community, its assets and problems, therefore, should be had by classroom teachers. Furthermore, within the community there may be persons, agencies, organizations, and institutions from which valuable contributions can be received. Occupational, recreational, and other surveys may reveal valuable data for use by classroom teachers.

Exercise of the guidance function by classroom teachers holds potential influence for curriculum revision. As teachers counsel students, they become more aware of the concerns of pupils, their interests and abilities, the problems which confront them, their felt needs, and the type of help which they are expecting from the school. Parental contacts similarly are productive of insights into those areas of pupil life where fulfillment can be provided probably only by the school. Thus the classroom teacher may utilize the curriculum as an agency for guidance and counseling, and in so doing may contribute basic data for curriculum improvement in terms of genuine pupil needs.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The needs of high school pupils cannot always be satisfied by the resources within the school. It is essential in a guidance and counseling program to use community resources. Through proper cooperation and coordination with the school, community resources should be surveyed and used in the development of a sound guidance program. Agencies, organizations, and appropriate institutions in both urban and rural areas should be utilized to

meet the needs of all who take advantage of the educational opportunities offered by secondary schools. Service clubs, churches, employment agencies, employers; youth agencies, and libraries may be included in these groups.

How Community Resources Can Assist.—Through survey methods the resources of the community can be discovered, analyzed, and organized to contribute to the development of the essential elements of a guidance and counseling program. The school must retain its right to administer and coordinate the activities. Information vital to the high school would include:

1. Lists of all the different civic and professional organizations and agencies which have group or committee objectives related to a school's guidance program.
2. Facts available to teachers and pupils about the local educational opportunities.
3. Providing current and reliable facts about local occupational trends.
4. Data which would help the school to appraise its guidance services.
5. Requirements of individuals to adjust properly to employment, community life, and home life.

Special counseling projects for pupils such organizations as Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Altrusa, Business and Professional Women, Woman's Rotary Clubs, Parent-Teachers Association, Farm Bureau, and Future Farmers of America should be determined, coordinated, and supervised by the school. Speakers from the community for assembly programs and interest group meetings can assist in achieving the aims of the guidance program. Educational and vocational information conferences for pupils and parents are beneficial if properly integrated with the guidance and counseling program. When the school policy permits, a community organization may contribute guidance materials. Exhibits, clinics, and other special services for the pupils and the

school may be sponsored by the school in cooperation with local groups. Special aid may be obtained for assisting the school in its in-service training program. Opportunities for faculty members with guidance responsibilities to visit places of business and industry and confer with leaders there would contribute to a more satisfactory understanding and use of community resources.

Guidance Activities Must Be Understood.—In an extended guidance program educationally-wise parents, employers, and other citizens in the community should understand the objectives and practices of the guidance and counseling program. The ways in which the human resources of the community can serve better the youth needs through the high school should be appraised and developed.

Pupils should be encouraged, and have the opportunity, to study, to observe, and to participate in different occupations. Community training opportunities, other than in the high school, should be made known to youth.

Counseling services for high school youth are necessary in a suitable, cooperative, and supervised program of work experience. Information concerning sound work experience programs in a community should be systematically discovered and disseminated to pupils. Counseling services should help high school youth to select, enter upon, and progress in, the type work experience program appropriate to individual needs.

Out-of-school youth should find counseling services available in the high school program. Assistance through the guidance program concerning vocational opportunities, training opportunities, opportunities for placement, and opportunities for other information leading to self-direc-

tion becomes a valuable personal service.

Guidance Services in the Extended Program To Be Understood.—Some of the services in the extended guidance program which parents and other citizens should understand are:

1. Methods by which pupils are oriented to higher institutions and to the next step beyond high school.
2. Uses made of the personal data obtained and retained by the school.
3. Values of a planned testing program.
4. Ways by which pupils are assisted with their educational and vocational plans.
5. Ways by which the desirable interests, abilities, and aptitudes of pupils are developed.
6. Ways by which pupils have their in-school programs adjusted to satisfy instructional, health, and employment needs. Well organized community surveys may provide important facts for the adjustment of high school youth and the adjustment of the high school program for such youth.

Studies which present the characteristics of the student body and the methods by which the educational needs are solved may be reported to the citizenry through school publications, newspaper publicity, and special community and school programs. The exchange of ideas of citizens working with the school may be used as a basis for the development of a progressive and continuous guidance program.

Placement and Follow-up Activities

Essential.—Information which may be given pupils by teachers and assigned counselors for the purpose of developing personal, social, and economic relationships may be obtained through placement and follow-up programs. Placement and follow-up procedures are basic to a guidance program. Studies should be made in the community to determine the activities of the former students and graduates. Data compiled in this manner should be organized and disseminated. Former graduates living in the high school community may return to the school for

talks and discussions which deal with post high school activities. Correspondence with former students concerning post high school activities may be a desirable class project. Public forums participated in by former students may be conducted for community enlightenment.

The whole community has the responsibility of helping each boy and girl to develop mentally, physically, and socially to the greatest extent possible. The school is *one* agency. All educational community resources should be coordinated for, and brought to bear upon, the guidance and counseling of high school youth.

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP

The proper placement and follow-up of high school youth are inherent in a guidance and counseling program. Placement includes assistance for boys and girls in adjusting to the next (a) grade level, (b) educational institution, (c) staff member, (d) home and community activity, (e) gainful occupation, and (f) group activity. Follow-up procedures involve using educational techniques by which continuous information concerning the growth and progress of students and the activities of school leavers are determined and appraised.

Pre-Orientation and Orientation Activities Essential.—A pre-orientation program for all prospective pupils new to the high school should be planned between the school administrator or assigned guidance agent of the "sending" school and the school administrator or assigned guidance agent of the "receiving" school. This procedure becomes an essential part of the entire guidance program because of its contribution to the continuous growth and development of individuals through proper articulation and integration procedures between schools.

Some of the activities of those responsible for the over-all guidance program in the senior high school may be the following:

1. Meeting with the prospective new pupils, parents, and staff in the "sending" school for the purpose of explaining the senior high offerings and activities.
2. Distributing, with appropriate explanation, printed or duplicated materials which impart information concerning educational opportunities in the high school, and
3. Sponsoring and directing pre-enrollment visits of pupils to the high school.

A planned orientation program for all pupils new to the high school is a required phase of the guidance and counseling program. A few of the methods which may be used to assist pupils new to the high school are these:

1. Furnishing student guides and pertinent information about the high school.
2. Providing help in initiating individual pupil records.
3. Holding special convocations or conferences to present information about the high school and other information related to educational and occupational planning.
4. Having an invitational meeting or conferences with parents or guardians.
5. Presenting information about the high school through English classes, orientation and conference groups, and special counseling.
6. Sponsoring pupil activities for both sexes.

As the high school extends its orientation program, periodic individual conferences should be held with pupils to appraise pupil adjustment to the school and school adjustment to the pupil. Upper classmen may participate in the orientation of newcomers to the high school.

Placement Has Broad Connotation—College, Special Schools, Gainful Employment.—Proper placement of individuals from elementary or junior high school in the senior high school is only one phase of the guidance program involving adjustment to new educational opportunities. Through counseling, each individual should be as-

sisted in making his adjustment to different instructional and activity groups. Each teacher, through the study of pupil data and personal observation, should plan and adjust teaching procedures to contribute to proper curricular adjustment. Instructional assignments and activities should be adapted to the needs of individuals within a specific group. These characteristics of a guidance and counseling program are essential.

A basic guidance program will provide information for pupils concerning institutions of higher learning and special schools. Such information would include up-to-date facts about entrance requirements, available scholarships, and available educational opportunities on the campus or through extension services. Adequate objective data concerning each graduate should be furnished the institution of higher learning or special school of his choice. Early in their high school careers, potential college, university, or special school students should be identified through the counseling program; an educational program should be charted properly and "followed through." Each pupil's school adjustment should be based on individual needs.

The extended guidance program may provide opportunities for potential college students:

1. To confer with college and university representatives on a planned and continuous basis.
2. To visit the campus of their choice.
3. To hear discussions by high school alumni who have attended colleges or special schools.
4. To obtain information on colleges and special schools through the use of audio-visual materials.
5. To confer with business and professional people concerning their college or special school experiences.

Systematic procedure for awarding scholarships should be included in a plan to achieve an optimum guidance program. An impartial faculty com-

mittee should obtain scholarship information and identify candidates for scholarships. Objective data (including achievement and scholastic aptitude test results) as well as credit or honor points should be used to select the recipients. High school pupils should be informed as early as the ninth year concerning scholarship opportunities and the methods by which successful candidates for scholarships are determined.

The high school, in attempting to achieve an optimum guidance and counseling program, should provide parents or guardians as well as pupils with information about subsequent educational opportunities. Personal interviews, small group discussions, forums, and audio-visual materials may be utilized for this purpose.

High school principals or counselors might provide clinical procedures to discover the abilities, interests, and capacities of individuals who wish to determine their potential strengths for advanced education. Objective data obtained in this manner should become a part of the entire cumulative record, and be used in counseling pre-college students.

Follow-up studies should be made to determine the successes or failures of students who enroll in institutions of higher learning.

Since the majority of school-leavers find their way into gainful occupations or take up their responsibilities in the home, the high school guidance and counseling program should include a service by which individuals may be assisted in securing and entering into initial gainful employment. Many in-school enrollees need such assistance for part-time employment. The principal would probably assume the responsibilities for the placement service in the small school; in a large school he may wish to designate a qualified and

unbiased staff member to develop and coordinate the placement service.

Some of the essential features of the placement service for employment are:

1. Up-to-date files containing employer registration data.
2. Up-to-date files containing student and school-leaver registration data.
3. A planned method of applicant referral.

The placement service in an extended guidance and counseling program should include:

1. Special visits to employers to obtain pertinent facts concerning the different job classifications.
2. Listing of employment needs.
3. Job descriptions with emphasis on educational requirements.
4. Follow-up studies to reveal successes and failures in job placements.
5. Follow-up studies in which the high school program is appraised and necessary curricular adjustments studied.

Follow-up Studies Needed.—Follow-up studies would involve methods and techniques for:

1. Securing, assembling, and recording pertinent data about students and high school-leavers.
2. Maintaining contacts to assist students and high school-leavers who are employed, attending college, or establishing home membership.
3. Counseling students and school-leavers about their plans and needed adjustments.
4. Making surveys.
5. Appraising the guidance and counseling program by the use of statistical or other pertinent data.

The principal, or designated staff member in developing a follow-up plan, will need competent clerical assistance, close working relationships with employers, employment agencies, the alumni association, service clubs, the Parent-Teachers' Association, colleges and universities, and appropriate community agencies and organizations.

CHECK LIST

A check list which appears on the pages which immediately follow has

been prepared to summarize the preceding materials. It will prove useful also for the self-evaluation of the

school's guidance and counseling program. It may further be used as a medium for in-service training.

CHECK LIST OF ELEMENTS IN A MINIMUM AND AN EXTENDED PROGRAM
OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

INFORMATION ABOUT PUPIL

	CHECK	
	Yes	No
<i>Minimum</i>		
For each pupil the school maintains a cumulative record.....	_____	_____
For each pupil the school secures and maintains a record of:		
Health and physical data.....	_____	_____
Scholastic aptitude.....	_____	_____
Evidences of aptitude other than scholastic.....	_____	_____
Interests:		
a. Vocational.....	_____	_____
b. Other.....	_____	_____
Data concerning:		
a. Social growth.....	_____	_____
b. Personality traits.....	_____	_____
Family data.....	_____	_____
Pupil background data.....	_____	_____
Future plans:		
a. Educational.....	_____	_____
b. Vocational.....	_____	_____
Activities:		
a. In school, out-of-class.....	_____	_____
b. Out of school.....	_____	_____
Work experience.....	_____	_____

Extended

Comprehensive information about each pupil is maintained as a cumulative record (folder, envelope, or other).....	_____	_____
Record is made of pupil likes and dislikes		
For school subjects.....	_____	_____
Others.....	_____	_____
Record is made of any unusual accomplishment, condition or experience in pupil's life.....	_____	_____
For pupils who have had work experience for pay, record is made of employers' evaluations.....	_____	_____
Information about former pupils is available.....	_____	_____

ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING THE PROGRAM

Minimum

Guidance is considered as a continuous function and is available throughout the secondary school period.....	_____	_____
Home and school work together in dealing with pupil problems.....	_____	_____
Individuals and organizations in the community are consulted and their cooperation is sought in supplementing the school's guidance services.....	_____	_____
All staff members regard guidance and counseling as a cooperative undertaking and responsibility.....	_____	_____
Care is exercised by all who are concerned with the guidance services securing assistance in the most difficult cases.....	_____	_____
Guidance activities in the school are chiefly concerned with developing self-direction in pupils.....	_____	_____

CHECK LIST (*Continued*)

CHECK	
Yes	No

Adequate provision is made for leadership and coordination of the guidance and counseling program.....

Counselor or guidance leader has satisfactory personal qualifications.....

Preparation and experience of the counselor or guidance leader are adequate.....

There is satisfactory evidence that the guidance leaders are improving in service.....

There is a definite well planned in-service program in operation for the improvement of the entire staff in the area of guidance.....

Classroom teachers participate in appropriate phases of the guidance service to a satisfactory extent.....

Organization is a flexible one.....

Administrative head of the high school is vitally interested in guidance.....

Daily schedule of classes is so planned that both teachers and students have time for guidance activity.....

High school staff has made a careful evaluation of guidance activities in the school.....

Faculty of the school has a definite guidance philosophy in which most of the members agree.....

Adequate files and record space are provided for the guidance program.....

Supplies for a minimum testing program are provided.....

Adequate use of the library is made in the guidance program.....

Extended

Counseling services are available to all high school and school-leavers.....

Entire school staff has an adequate concept of guidance.....

School has enlisted to a great extent the cooperation of the home and other agencies in developing its guidance program.....

Adequate provision is made for service of consultants in special phases of guidance.....

Individuals who act as special consultants are well qualified.....

Adequate room facilities are available for counseling.....

Classroom teachers are adequately prepared for their guidance responsibilities.....

Classroom teachers participate in appropriate phases of guidance very effectively.....

Procedures for articulation of the guidance program with elementary schools and higher institutions of learning are very effective.....

Guidance and counseling program is so clearly defined that each teacher knows what his particular duties and responsibilities are and the ways in which he contributes to the work of the other agents.....

Pupil experiences are coordinated and related.....

Each subject taught in the school contains some guidance information of value to the student.....

School has the equivalent of at least a full time counselor for each five hundred students enrolled in the school.....

Planned testing program is carried out in the schools.....

Well planned and executed research program is being carried out in the school.....

COUNSELING

Minimum and Extended

Counseling services are available to all pupils.....

Competent counselors have been selected.....

All teachers attempt to help pupils.....

Counselors have sufficient time to care for their assigned counselees.....

Counselors are encouraged to use referral resources.....

Counselors have time and are encouraged to work with teachers.....

An in-service program helps teachers and counselors with their problems.....

Adequate physical facilities are available for counseling.....

CHECK LIST (*Continued*)

CHECK	
Yes	No

Counselors have an opportunity and time to work with parents.....
 Counselors are encouraged to secure additional training.....

ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Minimum

Teachers consult the records to learn as much as possible about individual pupils
 Teachers supply information about pupils for the cumulative records.....
 Teachers frequently hold individual conferences with pupils.....
 Instruction is individualized, in so far as possible.....
 Courses of study make some provision for offering educational and/or vocational information.....
 Community resources are utilized in the instructional program.....
 Teachers confer with parents about pupils.....
 Teachers assist in adjusting curriculum to meet pupil needs.....

Extended

Teachers make professional study of guidance and counseling.....
 Special projects are conducted to enhance the guidance and counseling phase of classroom work.....
 Scheduled conferences between teachers and assigned counselors are held.....

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

Minimum

Community resources are surveyed and used in the development of the guidance and counseling program.....
 Services of community organizations, agencies, service clubs, and institutions are used in the guidance and counseling program.....
 Studies are made concerning community educational and occupational opportunities.....
 Teachers and assigned counselors study and use community resources.....
 Studies are made in the community to determine the requirements of youth for satisfactory adjustment to employment, community, and home life.....

Extended

Parents, employers, and other citizens understand how community resources are used in the guidance and counseling program.....
 Special educational and vocational conferences are carried on through assistance of citizens and groups in the community.....
 Community occupational surveys are made.....
 Work experience opportunities are adapted to needs of community and boys and girls.....
 Employers in community cooperate in placement of boys and girls.....
 Studies are conducted to determine what happens to school-leavers.....
 Counseling services are available to out-of-school youth in the community.....

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP

Minimum

An orientation program for pupils, between the "sending" school and "receiving" high school is in operation.....
 Pupils receive printed, duplicated, or other materials which assist in pupil adjustment to classes, schools, colleges and universities, and gainful employment
 Pre-college counseling begins in the ninth grade.....
 Pupils are assisted in selecting, entering upon, and adjusting to part-time or full-time employment.....
 Seniors with college intentions are assisted through a pre-college orientation program to take their next steps.....

CHECK LIST (*Concluded*)CHECK
Yes No

Recipients of scholarships are determined by objective data.....
High school placement service has organized employer registration data, pupil and school-leaver registration data, and applicant referral methods.....
Occasional and limited follow-up studies are made to determine adjustment of pupils and school-leavers to high school, college and university, gainful employment, or community life.....

Extended

Parents as well as pupils participate in the orientation program.....
Pupils are counseled individually concerning their adjustment to high school, college, and community life.....
Representatives of colleges and universities, and of community life, cooperate with the high school through individual and group conferences to help pupils and school-leavers to adjust to their next activity.....
An impartial plan for obtaining and interviewing candidates for scholarships is in operation.....
Placement service has a coordinated plan by which employment needs and job requirements are studied from the standpoint of the high school educational opportunities.....
High school has a planned program of making follow-up studies concerning the adjustment of pupils and school-leavers to high school, college and university, gainful employment, or community life.....
Community resources are used in making follow-up studies.....

THE 1947 STUDY OF SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR TEACHERS

Subcommittee on Teacher Personnel¹

A CONTINUED shortage of elementary teachers prepared to meet standard certificate requirements is the outstanding disclosure of the 1947 study of "Supply of and Demand for Teachers" throughout the North Central Association area. The report submitted to the annual NCA meetings on March 26, 1947, in Chicago shows that the total number of elementary teachers to be produced in colleges and universities in 1947 is hardly equal to one-half the number of such persons produced by identically the same institutions in 1941.

The total number of elementary teachers in service during the 1946-47 school year who hold only emergency or sub-standard certificates shows a tendency to decline only very slowly. The percentage of such teachers is 20.8 while it was 24.3 in 1946, 20.5 in 1945, and 14.4 in 1944. Throughout the twenty-state area evidence is now at hand that the policy of issuing emergency certificates for elementary teachers must continue in large numbers for an indefinite period. Colleges are not only not producing a sufficient number in 1947, but the evidence is clear that students in preparation whose graduation may be anticipated one, two, and even three years hence are still woefully few in number.

A significant but commonly overlooked factor is that the term "emer-

gency" has no uniform meaning. To describe one-fifth of all elementary teachers in service as holding "emergency" certificates, therefore, is largely without meaning except as one knows the requirements for a standard certificate. Requirements for standard certificates and for emergency certificates vary tremendously throughout the twenty-state area. In a number of states, for example, a standard elementary certificate is issued on completion of thirty semester hours of college work whereas in other states in the area a minimum of ninety semester hours is required before the first standard elementary certificate can be obtained. In these latter states, therefore, a certificate applicant may be eligible to the emergency certificate only and, at the same time, may have completed nearly three times as much college preparation as an applicant who received a standard certificate in another state.

Again, the term "emergency" lacks meaning because in six of the twenty states such certificate may be obtained by one who is only a high school graduate and who passes a nominal examination: in two states the minimum requirement for the emergency certificate is eight semester hours; in one state it is twelve semester hours; in one state it is twenty semester hours; in four states it is thirty semester hours; in one state it is forty semester hours; in one state it is fifty semester hours; in two states it is sixty semester hours, and in one state it is ninety semester hours. (One state in the region did not report.)

In the high school field the situation

¹ The members of the subcommittee are John R. Emens, president of Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, Ray C. Maul, registrar at State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, and T. M. Stinnett, executive secretary of the Arkansas State Education Association, Little Rock. The subcommittee designated Mr. Maul to collect the data and prepare the report.

is much more promising. The total 1947 product will be 75 percent of that of 1941 whereas the 1946 product was 60 percent and the 1945 product was 47 percent of 1941.

There is much irregularity in the distribution of qualified high school teachers among the various academic fields. For example, in 1947 the colleges and universities will produce approximately one and one-half times the number of men teachers of physical education as were produced by these same institutions in 1941 (Table I). In home economics, on the other hand, the 1947 supply is scarcely more than one-half that of 1941.

Although certificating authorities throughout the twenty-state region are pessimistic about the time when standard requirements can be enforced at the elementary level, they are without exception optimistic about the early return to standard requirements for high school teachers. The percentage of high school teachers holding only emergency certificates in 1946-47 is approximately one-half the number teaching on such sub-standard certificates a year ago.

The report clearly shows lack of any unified effort to correlate the production of well prepared teachers with the anticipated demand. It is not only possible, but probable, therefore, that an oversupply of teachers holding standard certificates in certain fields may become an early reality while the drastic need for teachers holding standard certificates in other fields will still be an unsolved problem. A challenge, therefore, is for the development of techniques whereby anticipated needs in each teaching area can be predicted and, at the same time, a guidance program developed through which college students will be controlled in their choice of major fields of

preparation. Meanwhile, a heavy burden upon educational leadership in America is to prevent the continued employment of unqualified teachers at all levels whose inefficient service may not warrant salaries now being paid. Perhaps the most important challenge to the maintenance of an attractive salary schedule is the improvement in the quality of service to be given.

The 1947 report follows the pattern of similar studies one, two, and three years ago. Chief state certification officers were asked to collect data from all colleges and universities offering courses leading to a *standard* teaching certificate. These data comprise Part I. The chief state officers were also asked, in a separate inquiry, for certain additional information which comprises Part II. All states except Indiana supplied data for Part I; all states except Nebraska supplied data for Part II.

PART I

Nineteen states supplied information from colleges and universities concerning the number of students who, in 1947, will complete programs of study entitling them to the *standard* teaching certificate as prescribed by the laws of the respective states. Data were also supplied by exactly the same colleges concerning students who had completed the same standard programs in 1946, 1945, and 1941. The number of students represented is indicated by states in Table II. Table I shows a comparison in *percentages* rather than in *numbers*. Assuming that 1941 was a normal year, the number of students completing requirements for *standard* certificates is taken as 100 percent. The *percentage* of students completing identical programs in 1947, 1946, and 1945, compared with 1941, is shown in Table I.

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS COMPLETING STANDARD CERTIFICATE REQUIREMENTS IN
1947, 1946, AND 1945 COMPARED WITH 1941

Type of Preparation	Year and Percent			
	1947	1946	1945	1941
<i>Elementary</i>				
120 semester hours.....	58.2	72.5	69.0	100
90 semester hours.....	31.8	39.3	45.0	100
60 semester hours.....	40.8	43.5	39.3	100
30 semester hours.....	33.8	32.0	32.0	100
Elementary Total.....	45.7	52.6	49.8	100
<i>High School</i>				
Agriculture.....	63.8	39.7	17.1	100
Art.....	66.7	56.2	54.0	100
Commerce.....	59.2	49.4	41.0	100
English.....	59.7	55.7	57.9	100
Foreign Language (any).....	71.9	61.4	51.4	100
Home Economics.....	57.7	59.9	68.6	100
Industrial Arts.....	93.9	55.1	19.1	100
Journalism.....	86.7	86.7	66.7	100
Library Science.....	92.1	15.5	109.2	100
Mathematics.....	89.2	69.2	46.8	100
Music.....	73.4	64.8	54.1	100
<i>Physical Education</i>				
Men.....	148.7	58.2	13.9	100
Women.....	106.1	87.4	75.8	100
<i>Science</i>				
General Science.....	80.6	54.4	35.3	100
Biology.....	65.3	48.6	34.4	100
Chemistry.....	62.8	38.8	23.7	100
Physics.....	80.8	59.6	29.3	100
Social Sciences.....	79.4	60.2	40.5	100
Speech.....	99.3	70.6	53.3	100
High School Total.....	75.3	59.1	46.9	100
GRAND TOTAL.....	60.8	55.9	48.3	100

Read table thus: In 1947 the number of students in colleges and universities in nineteen states completing the 120-hour elementary program was 58.2 percent of the number completing such programs in 1941.

TABLE II
TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS COMPLETING COURSES OF STUDY ENTITLING THEM TO STANDARD CERTIFICATES

TYPE OF PREPARATION	ARIZONA					ARKANSAS					COLORADO					ILLINOIS					IOWA							
	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943			
Elementary	95	86	105	310	111	91	76	97	116	156	508	755	718	843	190	110	118	152										
120 semester hours.....						7	5	16	7	2					198													
90 semester hours.....						202	240	196	332	19	17	8	67	3	9	3	323	425	386	426	719							
60 semester hours.....						173	127	87	132						3	11	3	3	3	3	26	37	36					
30 semester hours.....																												
Elementary Total.....	95	86	105	310	493	465	364	577	98	117	124	230	513	777	722	1367	625	522	581	907								
<i>High School</i>																												
Agriculture.....	2	2	7	23	11	1	70	11	14	12	32	23	47	25	77	45	7	7	29									
Art.....	3	2	44	33	31	19	28	29	27	22	55	94	85	59	151	62	17	12	10	16								
Commerce.....	27	15	9	12	93	51	60	84	46	48	47	68	154	165	141	241	65	66	73	96								
English.....	11	6	12	3	5	3	2	5	7	14	10	9	17	47	35	39	73	8	11	10	12							
Foreign Language (any).....	12	3	3	5	32	79	76	117	16	15	8	12	98	120	116	160	97	102	106	177								
Home Economics.....	14	14	16	16	15	5	1	3	16	13	6	37	64	35	11	65	29	16	9	13								
Industrial Arts.....	3	2	2	16	15				1	1	3	4					2											
Journalism.....																												
Library Science.....																												
Mathematics.....	7	3	6	32	16	16	23	17	12	5	23	104	65	30	101	32	15	19	47									
Music.....	15	4	8	16	29	15	15	16	30	22	19	49	94	81	60	126	122	78	74	133								
Physical Education.....	18	10	3	19	36	5	3	2	38	13	5	26	130	95	22	148	116	49	1	53								
Men.....						21	11	2	1	28	19	21	30	95	66	58	73	36	28	16	27							
Women.....	9	7	16	17	21	11																						
Science.....																												
General Science.....	1		1	22	9	7	22	15	7	8	15	30	16	9	36	38	17	6	19									
Biology.....	5	3	4	3	20	13	5	17	6	3	7	9	50	39	41	92	28	6	7	29								
Chemistry.....	2	1	1	8	5	2	7	3	2	1	4	22	10	14	48	4	5	1	12									
Physics.....	3	1	1	1	138	84	73	119	55	48	35	88	286	177	140	303	140	69	56	111								
Social Sciences.....	22	4	11	14	138	84	73	119	55	48	35	88	286	177	140	303	140	69	56									
Speech.....	2	2	3	10	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	49	35	13	40	27	29	16	36									
Special Education.....	1					5	2	1	48	41	28	97	2	6	4	6	27	29	16									
Miscellaneous.....						1	5	1	337	289	517	379	298	237	575	1424	1200	859	1832	898	29	17	23	39	962			
High School Total.....	153	78	87	195	571	337	289	517	379	298	237	575	1424	1200	859	1832	898	562	465									
GRAND TOTAL.....	248	164	192	505	1064	802	653	1004	477	415	361	805	1937	1977	1581	3199	1523	1084	1046	1869								

Read table thus: In Arizona in 1947, 95 students completed the 120 semester hour program in elementary education; in 1946, 86 students completed such a program. A standard certificate is not issued in Arizona on the basis of 90, 60, or 30 semester hours.

TABLE II (Continued)

TYPE OF PREPARATION	KANSAS					MICHIGAN					MINNESOTA					MISSOURI					MONTANA					
	1947	1946	1945	1944	1941	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	
<i>Elementary</i>																										
120 semester hours.....	70	82	75	147	565	575	515	719	128	121	125	228	116	215	185	353	13	12	4	26						
90 semester hours.....	112	105	117	522	128	135	133	325	340	357	207	792	57	4	2	15	60	57	55	55	347					
60 semester hours.....	96	102	95	367									2	74	77	1	464									
30 semester hours.....																										
Elementary Total.....	278	289	287	1036	693	710	648	1044	468	478	332	1020	185	294	264	832	73	69	59	373						
<i>High School</i>																										
Agriculture.....	1	12	15	25	20	18	2	34	16	1	1	23	25	18	3	33	6	3	2	8						
Art.....	19	44	25	111	43	43	29	34	58	20	21	18	29	17	12	11	17	1	1	6						
Commerce.....	55	53	60	142	144	113	93	151	123	36	47	35	82	68	62	47	123	12	4	9	30					
English.....	56	53	60	20	46	44	37	70	35	27	8	25	16	16	9	20	8	3	3	24						
Foreign Language (any).....	14	14	9	27	70	65	69	93	146	52	72	74	91	32	56	63	85	26	14	14	33					
Home Economics.....	39	26	41	62	33	31	58	44	20	10	38	32	22	19	19	19	19	1	1	1						
Industrial Arts.....																										1
Journalism.....																										
Library Science.....	7	6	7	14	5	7	7	7	5	11	4	20	26	31	24	18	49	4	3	1	7					
Mathematics.....	35	15	20	28	73	62	33	54	40	46	20	76	31	24	18	42	72	9	6	2	4					
Music.....	72	68	62	106	80	89	57	119	89	74	63	118	37	48	42	42	72	9	6	2	4					
Physical Education.....																										
Men.....	37	10	2	20	87	50	12	73	63	12	7	61	41	18	3	29	7	3	1	7						
Women.....	16	9	13	27	51	52	47	47	35	36	21	40	20	23	19	19	7	2	1	3						
Science.....																										
General Science.....	2	3	4	14	11	9	43	41	36	19	18	28	20	25	12	33	5	1	2	5						
Biology.....	22	23	8	47	30	19	10	39	21	18	15	25	17	15	3	31	5	1	2	7						
Chemistry.....	15	8	5	25	14	11	35	18	9	5	4	25	17	15	3	6	1	1	1	7						
Physics.....	2	5	3	133	182	119	73	190	196	143	80	281	118	106	91	209	9	8	6	6						
Social Sciences.....	104	69	43	10	57	39	30	49	6	6	37	72	7	7	6	11										
Speech.....	11	10	9	25	3	12	10	16	66	37	22	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72					
Special Education.....	24	20	10	25	3	12	10	16	66	37	22	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72					
Miscellaneous.....	2	3	1	45	20	11	24	20	11	24	20	11	24	20	11	24	20	11	24	20	11					
High School Total.....	573	409	320	875	1028	856	629	1349	912	735	542	1327	557	530	410	908	95	49	43	168						
GRAND TOTAL.....	851	698	607	1911	1721	1566	1277	2393	1380	1213	874	2347	742	824	674	1740	168	118	102	541						

TABLE II (Continued)

TYPE OF PREPARATION	NEBRASKA					NEW MEXICO					NORTH DAKOTA					OHIO					OKLAHOMA				
	1947	1946	1945	1944	1941	1947	1946	1945	1944	1941	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944			
<i>Elementary</i>																									
120 semester hours.....	22	27	29	27	77	152	128	121	15	8	9	26	260	283	259	325	280	486	421	717					
90 semester hours.....	11	22	25	34	70	41	54	45	171	163	594	52	64	58	52	60	73	102	78	188					
60 semester hours.....	52	90	109	138	67	52	45	16	5	16	43	6	6	45	92	45	6	337	506	322	145				
30 semester hours.....	15	23	22	127														11	50	50	3				
Elementary Total.....	100	162	185	206	214	245	227	153	229	184	189	663	417	386	389	418	690	1105	871	1053					
<i>High School</i>																									
Agriculture.....	2	14	1	3	7	3	2	4	3	18	12	1	17	2	33	23	34	48	56	35	50				
Art.....	11	14	9	22	10	9	5	12	17	12	21	31	96	53	53	120	100	12	11	21					
Commerce.....																		106	106	81	197				
English.....	14	9	21	25	11	13	16	12	25	28	22	65	118	77	77	106	218	40	113	114	172				
Foreign Language (any).....	2	1	1	3	12	10	3	10	1	1	1	6	41	36	45	79	9	20	23	18					
Home Economics.....	3	4	9	8	13	9	14	21	37	37	36	67	74	42	42	84	134	85	110	80	166				
Industrial Arts.....	6	13										2	20	49	1	20	8	60	38	38	22	53			
Journalism.....																		6	3	3	2				
Library Science.....	13	6	3	11	2	1	2	1	1	6	2	10	64	22	29	6	14	12	17						
Mathematics.....	10	9	3	14	1	10	6	10	13	9	5	15	111	88	92	184	56	67	45	93					
Music.....																		51	51	69					
Physical Education																									
Men.....																									
Women.....	17	7	1	7	10	3	2	11	6	8	3	7	149	38	9	92	37	9	7	21					
Science																		13	15	15	23				
General Science.....	2	2	1	17	4	2	2	7	11	6	6	19	20	13	6	31	16	43	34	37					
Biology.....	9	4	2	17	4	7	1	2	1	2	1	5	38	26	22	68	18	43	27	47					
Chemistry.....	5	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	6	6	12	26	8	9	29	9	10	10	10	17					
Physics.....	1	1	1	1	16	18	13	42	44	45	28	75	219	126	84	226	75	204	105	204					
Social Sciences.....	22	18	7	33	16	18	13	1	1	15	19	22	17	10	12	5	18	34	24	19	25				
Speech.....	4	2	2	19	1	4	11	15	26	9	19	39	25	18	12	5	10	6	8	10	7				
Special Education.....	4	2	19	1	4	11	1	40	186	183	149	381	1181	703	688	1516	613	988	771	1269					
Miscellaneous.....																									
High School Total.....	127	96	81	167	94	95	86	186	249	183	149	381	1181	703	688	1516	613	988	771	1269					
GRAND TOTAL.....	227	258	266	493	308	340	313	339	478	367	338	1044	1598	1089	1077	1934	1303	2093	1642	2322					

TABLE II (Concluded)

TYPE OF PREPARATION	SOUTH DAKOTA					WEST VIRGINIA					WISCONSIN					WYOMING					GRAND TOTALS					
	1947	1946	1945	1944	1943	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	1947	1946	1945	1944	
<i>Elementary</i>																										
120 semester hours.....	9	13	23	21	108	156	129	268	255	337	397	423	7	14	14	37	2908	3623	3446	3446	496					
90 semester hours.....	15	29	22	50	47	87	115	312	51	80	120	150	941	8	4	7	45	426	426	426	426	1083				
60 semester hours.....	136	171	185	534	106	70	92	394	384	424	426	941	8	4	7	45	2726	2913	2631	2631	6690					
30 semester hours.....	82	67	66	471														379	379	379	379	1186				
Elementary Total.....	242	280	296	1076	261	313	336	974	690	943	1514	15	18	21	82	6379	7341	6943	6943	13935						
<i>High School</i>																										
Agriculture.....	10	6	7	16	19	2	3	15	44	40	10	86	1	1	1	8	310	193	83	83	486					
Art.....	4	28	14	34	77	65	44	33	9	32	4	30	1	1	1	1	242	204	196	196	363					
Commerce.....	28	22	20	62	81	73	65	96	59	53	65	114	5	2	2	7	862	719	598	598	1457					
English.....	30	19	2	6	10	13	4	18	41	19	131	184	3	4	3	8	1236	1154	1199	1199	2970					
Foreign Language (any).....	14	12	32	47	72	63	87	62	74	84	125	119	6	5	6	6	315	269	225	225	438					
Home Economics.....	4	1	23	12	2	23	90	52	14	58	1	1	5	6	6	6	896	930	1066	1066	1553					
Industrial Arts.....																	506	297	103	103	539					
Journalism.....																	13	13	13	13	15					
Library Science.....	13	11	5	11	30	24	19	36	55	52	35	12	2	2	2	4	70	118	83	83	304					
Mathematics.....	18	18	9	37	47	38	31	38	35	37	25	27	3	2	2	4	852	752	752	752	628					
Music.....																										
Physical Education																										
Men.....																										
Women.....																										
Science																										
General Science.....	6	8	4	11	17	12	15	35	49	17	9	44	2	2	2	4	290	196	127	127	360					
Biology.....					25	14	7	31	48	20	14	53	2	2	2	4	357	266	188	188	547					
Chemistry.....					7				38	19	3	51	2	2	2	4	196	121	74	74	312					
Physics.....					2	13	6	2	8	13	5	3	17	2	2	2	80	59	29	29	99					
Social Sciences.....					84	105	65	55	112	204	144	73	226	4	2	2	10	1976	1498	1008	1008	2490				
Speech.....					11	3	4	17	3	43	22	29	50	2	2	2	87	204	154	154	289					
Special Education.....					2	1	2	28	17	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	214	177	142	142	270					
Miscellaneous.....					1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	137	135	113	113	161					
High School Total.....	196	152	130	343	700	487	367	623	1097	765	607	1233	40	24	20	63	10887	8547	6780	6780	14459					
GRAND TOTAL.....	438	432	426	1419	961	800	703	1597	1787	1606	1550	2717	55	42	41	145	17266	15888	13723	13723	28414					

Important: The data presented in Table II were collected while second semester and spring quarter enrollments were in progress in many colleges and universities. Also, this table does not include 1947 additions which will come through summer sessions.

PART II

1. Of the nineteen states reporting in 1947, not all furnished complete data as to (a) the total number of teachers, or (b) the total number of teachers holding only emergency certificates. Eighteen states furnished this information concerning elementary teachers, while thirteen reported concerning high school teachers. These

shows that of the high school teachers reported, 8.1 percent are now teaching on emergency certificates; a year ago this percentage was 15.1; two years ago this percentage was 13.7, and three years ago this percentage was 5.9. It seems fair to assume that in the elementary field the percentage of all teachers working on emergency certificates is beginning to point downward

TABLE III
TEACHERS HOLDING EMERGENCY CERTIFICATES 1944-47

Year	Number of States Reporting	Total Elementary Teachers Reported	Total Elementary Teachers Holding Emergency Certificate Only	Percent Elementary Teachers Holding Emergency Certificate Only	Total High School Teachers Reported	Total High School Teachers Holding Emergency Certificate Only	Percent High School Teachers Holding Emergency Certificate Only
1947	18	184,644	38,347	20.8	—	—	—
1947	13	—	—	—	80,382	5,655	8.1
1946	9	92,889	22,671	24.3	—	—	—
1946	9	—	—	—	41,366	6,246	15.1
1945	8	65,365	13,372	20.5	—	—	—
1945	9	—	—	—	36,494	5,015	13.7
1944	10	86,538	12,501	14.4	—	—	—
1944	9	—	—	—	35,304	2,082	5.9

figures are found in Table III along with similar information furnished in 1946, 1945, and 1944. In comparing these figures, it must be noted that the data were not supplied by exactly the same states and thus the figures are NOT exactly comparable. They are significant, however, in that they reveal the trend concerning the percentage of elementary teachers and the percentage of high school teachers holding only emergency certificates during the four-year period.

Table III shows that of the elementary teachers reported, 20.8 percent are now teaching on emergency certificates; a year ago this percentage was 15.1; two years ago this percentage was 13.7, and three years ago this percentage was 5.9. The above table

very slowly. On the other hand, it is quite obvious that the percentage of high school teachers working on emergency certificates is being sharply reduced, the 1947 figure being only about one-half that of 1946.

2. In every one of the nineteen states reporting, it is obvious that due precaution is being taken for the automatic expiration of emergency certificates, both elementary and high school. In no instance is a substandard certificate being issued which does not become invalid at the end of the year for which it is issued.

3. In every one of the nineteen states reporting, it is believed that elementary emergency certificates must again be issued for the 1947-48 school year. For those teachers now

holding an elementary emergency certificate (which automatically expires) a new one-year emergency certificate will be available on completion of from three to eight semester hours of college work. The average requirement is six semester hours. The two exceptions to this minimum requirement are Iowa and Missouri. Iowa will probably find it necessary to issue new elementary emergency certificates to a considerable number of teachers who now hold these expiring certificates and who will not, meanwhile, have earned any additional college credit. In Missouri the person who now holds his first elementary emergency certificate will be entitled to the issuance of a second one valid in 1947-48 without additional work. Throughout the nineteen states reporting, the requirements for the issuance of a first elementary emergency certificate (to an applicant who does not now hold one) vary from a minimum of high school graduation and the passing of an examination as one extreme to a minimum of ninety semester hours at the other extreme. In six states it is now planned to issue elementary emergency certificates to high school graduates who can pass an examination; two states will demand 8 semester hours; one state will demand twelve semester hours; one state will demand twenty semester hours; four states will demand thirty semester hours; one state will demand forty semester hours; one state will demand fifty semester hours; two states will demand sixty semester hours, and one state will demand ninety semester hours.

4. In fourteen of the nineteen states reporting, it is believed that high school emergency certificates must again be issued for the 1947-48 school year. For those teachers now holding a high school emergency certificate (which automatically expires) a new one-year emergency certificate will be

available on completion of from five to eight semester hours of college work. The average requirement is approximately seven hours. The two exceptions are Iowa, where it is not yet determined that additional college work will be demanded, and Missouri, where a second (but not a third) emergency certificate will be issued without the completion of additional college work. Five states definitely indicated the belief that the issuance of high school emergency certificates will not be necessary in 1947-1948.

5. The requirement for the issuance of new elementary emergency certificates throughout the nineteen states is substantially the same as prevailed one year ago and two years ago. In other words, there is not yet any available evidence that the requirement for a new elementary emergency certificate has been strengthened.

6. The requirement for the issuance of new high school emergency certificates throughout the fourteen states in which issuance is contemplated is substantially the same as prevailed one year ago and two years ago. Here again, there is little evidence that standards have been raised significantly. The most encouraging part of the picture is that five states feel that the need for the issuance of emergency high school certificates is at an end.

7. Figures are not available, but it remains evident that the number of teachers retiring from the profession or shifting to other positions is quite high. Estimates from the fifteen states reporting range from 4 percent in Indiana to 40 percent in Wyoming, with the average estimate being 15.4 percent. It must be recognized that these estimates are not supported by exact figures.

8. In sixteen states the authorities expressed opinion as to how long it will probably yet be necessary to continue

the issuance of emergency certificates. At the elementary level the range is from one to eight years, with the average being 4.6 years. At the high school level the range is from none to eight years, with the average being 2.1 years. Here again it must be noted that these estimates are not based on measurable facts, but they represent, rather, the best judgment of the certificating authorities in the state departments of the sixteen states reporting.

9. In every one except two of the nineteen states reporting, it is felt that the high school program (both curricular and extracurricular) has suffered severely because of the necessity of deleting certain offerings and/or activities due to the shortage of high school teachers. Fields mentioned as being most frequently affected were agriculture, industrial arts, physical education, commerce, science, mathematics, music, and home economics. The frequency with which these vital subjects are mentioned (along with numerous extracurricular activities) indicates the severity of the handicap under which high schools have labored throughout the twenty-state area during the war.

10. In nine of the sixteen states responding to the question, the feeling prevails that the shortage of high school teachers will be completely relieved in certain fields not later than September, 1947. Fields most frequently mentioned are men's physical education and social science. Fields less frequently mentioned are industrial arts and commerce. A striking feature of the report is the widespread belief that the supply of men in physical education holding standard certificates will equal or exceed the demand next September. The figures further indicate that an abnormally large number of veterans now pursuing teacher-education programs are planning majors in

physical education or social science. These facts should be of particular interest to counsellors and directors of guidance programs.

11. A year ago much optimism prevailed that a large number of former teachers would return to the profession from war industries. Current reports do not bear out this assumption. In fourteen of the nineteen states reporting, it is the opinion of the state authorities that this factor is negligible; three state authorities believe the number of returning former teachers is meaningful, while two state authorities express doubt.

12. Two years ago, in two of the nineteen states reporting, no significant salary increases were granted; in two states increases were general, but no percentages were reported; in fifteen states the range of salary increases was from 5 to 20 percent, with the average being 13.9 percent.

One year ago, in two of the nineteen states reporting, no significant salary increases were granted; in one state increases were general, but no percentage was reported; in sixteen states the range of salary increases was from 8 to 20 percent, with the average being 15.6 percent.

In all nineteen states reporting, salary increases for the coming year are anticipated. Four states do not suggest any definite percentages. In fifteen states the anticipated range of increase in salary is from 7.5 to 26 percent, with the average anticipated increase being 16.1 percent.

In the 1946 study one year ago a particular effort was made to uncover unique or unusual methods of recruitment. The Subcommittee placed this problem before the chief officers of the State Teachers (or Education) Associations as well as the state certification officers. Other sources were also explored in an effort to bring to light un-

usual methods of attracting superior youth to teacher-education programs. The 1946 responses indicated a genuine interest but did not disclose information which seemed to justify the repetition of the effort in 1947. This report, therefore, does not cover any inquiry in the field of recruitment.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The 1947 study reveals certain facts from which it seems fair to draw the following conclusions:

1. The trend is still downward in the production of elementary teachers to meet standard certificate requirements when the twenty-state area is considered as a whole. The 1947 total as represented by current reports will be only 45.7 percent of the 1941 total whereas the 1946 total was 52.6 percent and the 1945 total was 49.8 percent. It is small encouragement to note that in 1947, almost two years after the end of the war, the total production of elementary teachers with standard preparation is approximately the same as at the end of the war.

2. Prospects for real improvement in the elementary field remain gloomy. No state can abandon the practice of issuing elementary emergency certificates in 1947, and no state can make significant progress in elevating its minimum requirements for a standard elementary certificate. Many of the twenty states are at an extremely low level. It seems doubtful that preparation of four, three, or even two years of college work can be demanded for an indefinite number of years to come. The tragedy lies in the fact that although a few states have professionalized elementary teaching with high requirements, a majority of the states, when and if they can abandon the issuance of emergency certificates, will resume operation on standard requirements which are pitifully low. An im-

portant challenge to educational leadership here is to see that recently improved salaries are not used for the employment of such poorly prepared teachers that the public will withdraw such measures of financial support as are now evident.

3. One of the most unfortunate circumstances revealed by the 1947 study is that authorities in state departments do not actually know what types and amounts of preparation lie back of the thousands of elementary emergency certificates now in force. Although a majority of the state authorities can report the total number of emergency certificates in force, these authorities, with only one or two exceptions, cannot report how many emergency certificates are based on (a) no college credit, (b) less than fifteen semester hours, (c) as much as sixteen but not more than twenty-nine semester hours, (d) as much as thirty but not more than forty-four semester hours, (e) as much as forty-five but not more than fifty-nine semester hours, or (f) more than sixty hours. State department authorities should be given the strongest possible support in analyzing both the quality and quantity of preparation underlying the emergency certificates issued by them.

4. The trend is now up in the production of high school teachers to meet standard certificate requirements. The 1947 total as represented by current reports will be 75.3 percent of the 1941 total whereas the 1946 total was only 59.1 percent, and the 1945 total was only 46.9 percent. These figures would seem to justify the conclusion that colleges are making rapid strides in producing high school teachers who meet existing standards for certificates in sufficient number to meet the demand in certain fields while the 1947 supply in numerous other fields will yet be inadequate.

5. The distribution of college students now completing requirements for standard high school certificates is in no way related to the demands in the various teaching fields. The outstanding example is men's physical education where, during the current year, the production will be approximately one and one-half times the number produced in 1941. The 1947 figure is 148.7 percent of the 1941 figure. Again, in women's physical education, in speech, in industrial arts, and in library science the number produced in 1947 will exceed or approximate the number produced in 1941. On the other hand, in such fields as home economics, English, agriculture, art, and some of the sciences the 1947 production will be scarcely more than one-half the number produced in 1941. Social science, which was regularly the most over-crowded field during the decade prior to the war, also shows very rapid increases. The 1947 reports point unmistakably to the need for (a) more effective counseling at the college level and (b) the early establishment of selective measures.

6. An inescapable conclusion to be

drawn from the data presented in the paragraph immediately above is that the nation may very quickly pass from an era of shortage of teachers of all types to a surplus of persons meeting standard certificate requirements in certain high school teaching fields. The challenges here are (a) the development of techniques whereby anticipated needs in each teaching area can be measured and used to control the number produced, (b) the development and adoption of measures whereby only the most highly superior will be encouraged (or permitted) to complete preparation for the certificate, and (c) the increase in standards (both quantitative and qualitative) which will assure a uniformly high quality of instructional service. Perhaps the most serious threat to the entire salary structure now being improved throughout the nation lies in these three areas. The percentage of high school teachers produced in each teaching field in 1947, 1946, and 1945 when compared with production in 1941, as shown in Table I, takes on added meaning when related to these challenges.

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 1. *Principles of Accrediting Higher Institutions*, by GEORGE F. ZOOK and M. E. HAGGERTY, 1936. Pp. 202. \$2.00
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1. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Higher Institutions, Operation of the Accrediting Procedure," July 1, 1941
2. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
3. "Periodicals for the College Library," prepared for the Committee on Revision of Standards by DOUGLAS WAPLES
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